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OXFORD.

OXFORD:

ITS

SOCIAL AND INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

WITH

REMARKS AND HINTS ON EXPENSES,
THE EXAMINATIONS,
THE SELECTION OF BOOKS,
ETC.

BY
Sir Algernon Methuen
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WADHAM COLLEGE, OXON.

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THEOLOGICAL
SEMINARY

PREFACE.

THE following pages were written in the hope that they might satisfy a want, the sense of which has been often expressed to the author by pupils or those in any way interested in the University.

Undertaken primarily for intending undergraduates, this work has been enlarged in its scope, and been made to include some chapters on the various Examinations. A similar guide published some years since has now become so obsolete as almost to be useless. The new works which are being continually published on every subject have created a great change in the character of most of the Examinations, and rendered a new treatment necessary. The chapter on Reading for Scholarships will, it is hoped, prove useful to many who are somewhat mystified and troubled at the amount of reading to be done, or the vast number of books to be consulted. The books recommended are those which are necessary or especially worthy of perusal, and the author, from practical

experience in tuition, believes they are the best on their subjects and will prove quite sufficient.

The subject of Expenses has never received a full and worthy treatment, and it is to be hoped that the chapter on that question will give parents a definite idea of the cost of an average University Education.

The chapters on Oxford Life will probably not meet with universal approval. The author has only to plead the extreme difficulty and delicacy of the subject; for himself, he has attempted to steer between a severe Puritanism and a vulgar flippancy, and to judge impartially between good points and bad.

The author's best thanks are due to the many kind friends who have helped him with their advice and assistance. Especially he would mention H. A. Wilson, Esq., Fellow of Magdalen, and F. G. Brabant, Esq., late Scholar of Corpus, for a revision of the Classical chapters; S. T. H. Saunders, Esq., Junior Student of Christ Church, for much assistance in the chapter on the Mathematical Schools; and F. V. Budge, Esq., Wadham, for aid in the chapter on Jurisprudence.

The chapters on Modern History and Science have been made very brief, as it was impossible to enter into a detailed discussion without seriously enlarging the bulk of the book. The Theological

School is at present so uncertain in its character that it was thought advisable to omit all remarks upon it.

In conclusion, no one can be more conscious than the author of the imperfections of his work. It has been written in the intervals of professional duties, and the revision of some parts and the exclusion of others are probably needed ; but the author earnestly hopes that some may gain from these pages a truer idea of a noble University.

A. M. M. STEDMAN.

FRIAR PARK, HENLEY-ON-THAMES,
June, 1878.

P.S.—The author's thanks will be due to all who may send him any criticisms or suggestions.

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ERRATA.

Page 3, *for* "election takes" *read* "elections take."
,, 33, *for* "generally" *read* "usually."
,, 40, *for* "price" *read* "prices."
,, 41, "poor," *dele* comma.
,, 71, *for* "hospiality" *read* "hospitality."
,, 77, *for* "condemn those" *read* "condemn him."
,, 92, *for* "affection" *read* "affectation."
,, 108, "freedom," *dele* comma.
,, 132, "examination," *dele* comma.
,, 134, "These" *add* comma.
,, 136, *for* "chapter" *read* "page."
,, 142, *for* "Second" *read* "second."
,, 147, *for* "Thucydides ;" *read* "Thucydides,".
,, 154, *for* "task" *read* "taste."
,, 158, *for* "from time to time" *read* "for some time."
,, 175, *for* "syntax" *read* "Syntax."
,, 204, *for* "bear" *read* "bears."
,, 211, *for* "Symond's" *read* "Symonds'."
,, 249, *for* "Cape's" *read* "Capes'."
,, 255, *for* "Jouffroy's"* *read* "Jouffroy's"†.
,, ,, *for* "reference †" *read* "reference *."
,, 265, "Jurisprudence," *dele* comma.

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CHAPTER I.

THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

Distinction between the University and the Colleges.

THERE exists in the minds of many persons a very erroneous, but perhaps natural, tendency to identify the University of Oxford with the separate Colleges. In fact these latter are totally distinct bodies, as their origin and objects demonstrate.

The University is a corporate body, under the title of "The Chancellor, Masters, and Scholars of the University of Oxford." Its object is to provide instruction for its members, and to encourage learning by means of its staff of professors, libraries and other institutions, scholarships and prizes, examinations, and, finally, degrees. It does not provide accommodation for undergraduates, and is concerned only with their intellectual and moral welfare. It was to supply this want of accommodation that the various Colleges were founded. These are corporate bodies, in most cases liberally endowed by private benefactors for the purpose of assisting students during their residence at the University. Before the establishment of Colleges the undergraduates were accustomed to live in any part of the town. A College offered to them the definite advantages of comfortable lodgings, good society,

help to poor students in the shape of scholarships, and assistance intellectually from tutors. In time the Colleges had completely absorbed all the students, and residence outside a College or Hall was strictly prohibited. There is thus a clear distinction between the University of Oxford, the original institution, and the Colleges, which simply offer residence to undergraduates during their studies at the University.

Constitution of the University.

The University has the power of making the statutes for the regulation of its own affairs, and its constitution consists of four bodies—1. The House of Congregation. 2. The House of Convocation. 3. The Congregation of the University of Oxford. 4. The Hebdomadal Council.

Congregation.

The first body consists of Doctors of every Faculty, all Masters of Arts for two years after they have taken their degrees, and certain of the officials of the University.

Convocation.

The House of Convocation consists of all M.A.'s and Doctors, members of a College or Hall, who keep their names on the books, and pay the statutable fees.

Congregation of the University.

The Congregation of the University consists of most of the officials of the University, and of all members of Convocation who have resided 140 nights during the year within the limits of the University.

Hebdomadal Council.

The Hebdomadal Council consists of the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor, the Ex-Vice-Chancellor for one year, and the two Proctors, who are official members. There are also eighteen elected members. This Council meets every week (hence its name) during Term, and has the initiative in all the legislation of the University.

Of these bodies the most powerful is the House of Convocation, in which the greater portion of the formal business of the University is transacted, honorary degrees are conferred, and all election to offices in the gift of the University takes place. In the election of Burgesses members may vote by proxy.

Officers of the University.

It is scarcely necessary to give the names or discuss the duties of all the officials of the University. The head of the University is of course the Chancellor, who is generally a public man of eminence. The Chancellor delegates his duties to the Vice-Chancellor, who is chosen from the Heads of Houses, and who generally holds office for four years. The Vice-Chancellor is thus really at the head of the administration, and has almost unlimited authority. He has the powers of a judge, and has jurisdiction in all cases, civil and criminal, in which resident members of the University are concerned. This jurisdiction is exercised at the Vice-Chancellor's Court in the Convocation House, where the Vice-Chancellor is assisted by a qualified legal assessor. All disputed debts, &c., are here brought up for settlement.

The Vice-Chancellor.

The Proctors.

Next to the Vice-Chancellor the most important officials are the Proctors, who are elected annually by the several Colleges and Halls in a certain cycle. The chief duties of the Proctors are to supervise the discipline and morals of the undergraduates, to assist the Vice-Chancellor in the performance of his official duties, and to arrange the various examinations. There are two Proctors, the Senior and Junior, and each appoints two Masters of Arts as his Pro-Proctors. They are admitted to office at the commencement of the Summer Term.

Terms. There are four Terms for academical exercises in each year, but for all purposes the third and fourth count only as one. (1) Michaelmas Term. (2) Hilary (or Lent) Term. (3) Easter Term. (4) Trinity (or Act) Term. (3) and (4) are called the Summer Term.

Incentives to Study. With regard to the system of education pursued, the University itself, besides appointing a large staff of Professors, offers every encouragement to study by means of the various examinations it prescribes, and the scholarships and prizes it awards annually, Of these latter, the chief are the Hertford, the Ireland, and the Craven Scholarships. The first of these is for the promotion of Latin, the second and third of both Greek and Latin learning. The most eminent members of the University have gained these distinctions, which are naturally objects of emulation to the classical lights of the day. There are also various prizes awarded for excellence in History, Law, Sciences, Mathematics, Theology, Modern Languages, &c.: thus industry in every branch of learning has its appropriate reward. For these Scholarships no definite books are required to be read, and the student is left free to prepare himself as he pleases. But for the various examinations the University prescribes a fixed amount of work to be completed within a certain time.

B.A. An undergraduate is entitled to the degree of B.A. on the following conditions:—

Residence and Examinations necessary. (1.) He must have kept twelve statutable Terms. In an academical year there are four Terms, so that a degree may really be taken in two years and eight months; for instance, if a man has entered in October, 1878, he is qualified, as far as time is concerned, to take his degree in May or June, 1881.

(2.) He must pass the following examinations :—

a. Responsions, held three times a year, or he must have satisfied the Delegates of the Schools Examinations, or of the Local Examinations. Responsions.

b. The First Public Examination (Moderations), held twice a year, either as Pass or Class. First Public.

Mathematical Moderations count as nothing for the degree ; thus Pass or Honour "Mods" must be passed in addition, either before or after Mathematical "Mods."

For Honour "Mods" no candidate must offer himself until his fifth Term, or after his eighth Term.

c. The Second Public Examination, held twice a year ; in which is included Divinity (or substituted matter) : either as :— Second Public.

(1.) A Pass Examination in three subjects.

(2.) An Honour Examination in one or more of six different Schools :—

(*a.*) Literæ Humaniores.

(*b.*) Mathematics.

(*c.*) Natural Science.

(*d.*) Jurisprudence.

(*e.*) Modern History,

(*f.*) Theology.

No one is admitted as a candidate in any Honour School (except Preliminary Science), or in Divinity, until he has entered upon his twelfth Term. Limits of Time.

No one is admitted as a candidate in any Honour School after sixteen Terms, unless he has been classed in some other School of the Second Public Examination, when he may be admitted up to his twentieth Term inclusively.

For the degree of Master of Arts no further ex- M.A.

amination is required. A man must only have had his name on the College books for twenty-seven Terms, and must pay certain prescribed fees.

B. Mus. Candidates for the degrees of B. Mus. are required to pass two Examinations, in Hilary and Michaelmas Terms respectively.

D. Mus. For the degree of D. Mus. another examination is required, as well as a piece of original composition to be performed publicly.

No special period of residence is necessary for this degree.

B.C.L. Candidates for the degree of B.C.L. must pass one examination,* held in the specified subjects, in Trinity Term.

D.C.L. A B.C.L. wishing to proceed to the degree of Doctor is required to read a dissertation before the Regius Professor.

B.M. Candidates for the degree of B.M. are required to pass two examinations.*

D.M. For the degree of D.M. a dissertation must be read publicly.

B.D. A candidate for the degree of B.D. must read two dissertations before the Regius Professor.†

D.D. A B.D. wishing to take a Doctor's degree must read three exegetical lectures.

In some cases, and under certain conditions (specified in the Calendar), degrees may be granted to absent persons, and members of the Universities of Cambridge and Dublin may be incorporated into the University.

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* In the twenty-seventh Term from their Matriculation.

† At the end of three years from his admission to Regency.

The annual revenues of the University are estimated at 460,000*l.*

Colleges.

The Colleges and Halls are, as was before said, institutions founded for the purpose of assisting students during their residence at the University, and have their own governing body quite distinct from the University. They have a large number of fellowships and scholarships attached to them, and have a body of tutors to prepare undergraduates for the examinations. The College authorities exercise a despotic power within their own sphere, and make such arrangements as please them with regard to the members of the College. The Head of a College is known by various titles, as the Warden, Rector, Master, and in one case Dean. The Heads of Halls are called Principals, while the discipline of the Unattached is intrusted to a Delegacy.

New Foundations.

The Colleges and Halls three and twenty years ago monopolised the students of the University. Now, however, any Master of Arts may open his house, under certain conditions, as a private Hall; and in 1868, any person was allowed to become a member of the University, unattached to a College or Hall, under certain conditions. The unattached now exceed in numbers the largest College. Under a later statute, new foundations are admitted, with certain exceptions, to enjoy the same privileges as the older Colleges. Of this kind is Keble, which was incorporated in 1870.

CHAPTER II.

THE COLLEGES.

UNIVERSITY (or "Univ.," as it is vulgarly called) takes precedence of the other Colleges by virtue of its reputed antiquity. Its foundation is ascribed by tradition to Alfred the Great, and the date of its erection is commonly said to be 872. For this, however, there is no satisfactory evidence, though the Crown claims the right of visitation on the assumption that the College is a royal foundation. The only certain record that we possess is that the building (by whomsoever founded) was restored by a bequest of William of Durham, who died in 1249, leaving a sum of money for the permanent endowment of a certain number of "Masters." The buildings were enlarged from time to time, but no uniformity of architecture was visible until after the Restoration, when the whole was remodelled; the present front was raised so lately as 1800. The College stands in the High Street, opposite to Queen's, and its crumbling walls give it a particularly ancient appearance. The new buildings to the west were added in 1841.

The Chapel is a building of some beauty, and was restored in 1862, two years after the new library had been erected. The Hall was built in 1657, and is one of the finest rooms in the University.

The present foundation consists of a Master, thirteen Fellows (of whom one is the Civil Law

Fellow), eighteen Scholars, and certain Exhibitioners. The Scholarships are of the value of 80*l.* per annum for five years.

The present Master is Mr. Bradley, late Head Master of Marlborough.

University cannot boast of many eminent men: the most famous being, Bishop Ridley, Dr. Radcliffe (founder of the Radcliffe Library), Percy Bysshe Shelley, Dean Stanley, Lords Eldon and Stowell, and Father Faber.

University is a large College, and fairly popular. It is high on the river, and has furnished a man for the Oxford Eight for some years past; nor are its intellectual efforts of small importance. It may be called a "hard working College all round," and usually appears to advantage in the Class-Lists.

Balliol College was founded sometime between the years 1263 and 1268 by John Balliol and his wife Devorgilla, the parents of John Balliol, King of Scotland. The buildings were enlarged in 1303 and 1461, and a new front was erected in 1868. The College has been much improved within the last few years. The Chapel was rebuilt in 1856; and the Library was restored in 1792, and is especially rich in works on Divinity, and in old manuscripts. Balliol.

A Hall of imposing dimensions was built two years ago. At present it has an appearance of somewhat painful newness.

On the foundation there are thirteen Fellows, thirty-two Scholars, and a large number of Exhibitioners. The Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.*, for four or five years; the exhibitioners range from 100*l.* to 40*l.* Thus Balliol is rich in encouragements to learning.

The present Master is the Rev. B. Jowett, Regius Professor of Greek. Prof. Jowett's connection with "Essays and Reviews" is well known, and, besides other works, he has translated the dialogues of Plato into English in such a manner as to make Plato "an English Classic."

The late Master was Dr. Scott, Dean of Rochester, collaborateur in Liddell and Scott's Greek-English Lexicon.

Eminent members of Balliol have been :—Cardinal Manning ; Dr. Stanley ; Dr. Temple ; Archbishop Tait ; Robert Southey ; Adam Smith ; Humphry, Duke of Gloucester ; Sir Stafford Northcote.

Under the régime of Dr. Scott and Prof. Jowett, Balliol has risen to the first place as an intellectual College, and is accustomed to carry off a large proportion of the prizes of the University. Balliol Scholarships are thus objects of eager ambition, and are always gained by men of more than average attainments. The undergraduates are assisted in their studies by a large and able body of tutors.

Balliol cannot be called a popular College within the University. Its success, so pronounced, caused some degree of jealousy ; and a few Balliol men are so affected by an intellectual arrogance, combined with a certain disregard of the amenities of life, that they are alternately envied and despised. But there can be no doubt that Balliol is a noble school of learning, and takes the first place in England as a purely educational resort.

Merton. Merton, the third College in order of foundation, was originally, in 1264, a house for scholars at Maldon, in Surrey, and was removed to Oxford

about 1274 by Walter de Merton, Bishop of Rochester, and Lord High Chancellor of England.

The buildings have been enlarged, and the Hall restored more recently. The Chapel (Church of St. John the Baptist) is a remarkably fine building, and the choir is very beautiful. The Library is rich in mediæval literature, and is open to all members of the College.

The foundation consists of a Warden, twenty-four Fellows, eighteen Postmasters,* and four Scholars. The Postmasterships and Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* for five years.

Merton has educated a large number of Bishops and Archbishops of the Church, among whom the most eminent are Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, Jewel, and Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester. Other famous members are:—Duns Scotus, the metaphysician; Ockhan; Antony a Wood, the historian of Oxford; and John Wicklif. William Harvey (the discoverer of the circulation of the blood), though a Cambridge man, was appointed Warden in 1645. The present Warden is Dr. Bullock-Marsham.

Merton is generally held to be a "fast" College, nor is this reputation altogether undeserved, for there are many men who indulge in pleasures the reverse of sober and intellectual. The College does not take a high rank either in the Schools or on the river, but is fairly popular.

Exeter College was founded in 1314 by Walter de Stapledon, Bishop of Exeter, and Lord High Treasurer of England, and was originally called Exeter.

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* The Postmasters answer to the Scholars of other foundations.

Stapledon Hall. Fellowships were added at different periods, and now the Foundation consists of fifteen Fellowships, twenty-eight Scholarships, and ten Exhibitions. The Scholarships are of the annual value of from 80*l.* to 60*l.* for five years. The Exhibitions are of less value.

The College has been restored and refaced within this century, and new buildings were erected in 1832. The Chapel is entirely new, and was erected in 1856. It is a very fine building, decorated in the most elaborate style with mosaics designed by Salviati.

The Library is also new, and was built in 1856, under the direction of Sir Gilbert Scott, the architect of the Chapel.

Among those who have been educated at Exeter are Samuel Wesley (father of John and Charles Wesley), J. A. Froude, and Lord Coleridge.

Exeter is a popular College, with a good Eight and Eleven, and taking also its fair share of University honours. Some years ago it was unfortunately much split up into "sets," and the natural result was that its name was low on the river, and in the College there was an absence of that public spirit and sociable character which are the conditions of a pleasant life. It has now regained its proper place, and is (with two exceptions) the largest College in Oxford.

Oriel. Oriel was founded by Edward II., at the suggestion of Adam de Brome, his almoner, for a Provost and ten Fellows. The charter is dated 1326. The origin of the name is involved in obscurity, the general explanation being that Oriel is a corrupted form of Aula Regalis. The present buildings were erected at the commencement of

the seventeenth century; the Hall and Chapel were raised about 1640, and additions were made in the inner court in 1730. The Library was built in 1788. None of these buildings are of great beauty, and the position of the College, down a small back lane, gives it an unduly mean appearance.

But the chief glory of Oriel is the long line of illustrious men she has educated. Barclay, the author of "The Ship of Fools;" Longland, author of "Piers Plowman;" Bishop Ken; Prynne; Sir Walter Raleigh; Dr. Pusey; Keble; Dr. Newman; Archbishop Whately; Dr. Arnold; Matthew Arnold; Gathorne Hardy (Lord Cranbrook).

The present Foundation consists of a Provost (Dr. Hawkins), seventeen Fellows, and ten Scholars. There are also four Exhibitions, called the Exhibitions of Adam de Brome; these and the Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* for five years. Besides these, there are eighteen Exhibitions and two Bible-clerkships.

The glory of Oriel has faded much since the time when Keble, Newman, Pusey, and their contemporaries lived within its walls; and even within the last few years its position has been lowered. Yet it is a noble institution, and should have a splendid future before it.

It is not remarkable either for success in the Schools or on the river; but the tutors are able, and society is fairly pleasant.

Queen's College was founded in 1340 by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to Philippa, Queen of Edward III. (hence the name). At this period the buildings were very irregular, but the present College was erected in 1756. The western wing was

Queen's.

destroyed by fire in 1778; the College was re-fronted in 1845. The architecture is peculiar, and over the main entrance is a large cupola. The Chapel and Library are fine buildings; the architecture of the College is Grecian.

Among those who have studied at Queen's are the "Black Prince," Henry V., Cardinal Beaufort, John Wicklif, and Wycherley. The Foundation consists of a Provost (Dr. Jackson), eighteen Fellows, fifteen Scholars,, two Bible-clerks, and four Eglesfield Exhibitioners. The Scholarships are of the annual value of 90*l.* for five years. The Bible-clerkships are of the value of 81*l.* for the same period, with rooms rent free. The Exhibitions are 81*l.* a year for four years. Candidates for these Exhibitions must be natives of Cumberland and Westmorland. There are also a large number of Exhibitions, tenable by persons natives of, or educated in, the Northern Counties. A Jodrell Scholarship has been founded, of the annual value of 100*l.* for four years.

Queen's has always been the north-country College, and in former days was more famous for beer and athletics than for intellectual attainments. But, like the other Colleges, it has changed in a great degree, and "natives of Cumberland and Westmorland" do not now form the great majority of students. Queen's has always shown a fickle excellence both on the river and in the Schools. At present its position is high in neither direction.

New. New College was founded in 1386 by William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, and Lord High Chancellor of England. The buildings were designed on a magnificent scale, and the College as a whole is one of the finest in the University.

The Chapel is especially beautiful, and ornamented in an elaborate manner. The Hall was restored in 1866, and is large and handsome. The gardens are perhaps the loveliest in the University, and accord well with the buildings and the old city wall which surround them. The Foundation consists of a Warden (Dr. Sewell, the present Vice-Chancellor), thirty Fellows, and forty Scholars. Fifteen of the Fellowships are confined to those who have received their education at Winchester or New. Thirty of the Scholarships are also confined to Winchester boys, but in default of a properly qualified candidate they are thrown open. The scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* (with tuition free) for five years. There are also a few Exhibitions.

The most famous members of New are Archbishop Chichele, William Pitt, William Grocyn, and Sydney Smith.

The rise of New College to popularity has been almost unprecedentedly sudden. Twenty years ago the undergraduates scarcely numbered fifty; now they are three times that number. Formerly Winchester men were altogether in the ascendant, but now, though these constitute a large proportion, the College is not exclusively Wykehamist. New is not high on the river, but its success in the Schools has latterly been very marked. The gardens are beautiful, the chapel services are charming, and the men are pleasant—obvious causes of popularity.

Lincoln College was founded by Richard Flem- Lincoln.
ing, Bishop of Lincoln, in 1427. The buildings do not display much architectural beauty. The foundation consists of a Rector (Rev. Mark

Pattison), ten Fellows, and eighteen Scholars. The Scholarships are of the annual value of from 80*l.* to 60*l.*, for four years. Famous students have been Sir William Davenant, John Wesley, Lord Crewe.

Lincoln can scarcely be called popular, and at present is undergoing one of those transitions or decadences which fall to the lot of most Colleges. It shows no marked excellence either on the river or in the schools.

All Souls.

All Souls' College was founded in 1437 by Henry Chichele, Fellow of New, and Archbishop of Canterbury, for a Warden, forty Fellows, two Chaplains, and four Clerks. Ten Fellowships have been suppressed to endow two Professorships. The old qualifications necessary for election to a Fellowship have been abolished ; and candidates are required only to have been placed in the first-class in one public examination, or to have obtained some University prize.*

The only undergraduates resident are the four Bible-clerks. The buildings of All Souls are fine, and are adorned with particularly beautiful towers. The Chapel has been restored, and contains a magnificent reredos, until lately hidden from view.

The Codrington Library is the finest private institution in the University, and is rich in works on History and Law. A reading-room is attached, which is open to undergraduates on the production of a recommendation from a College Tutor. Among eminent members may be mentioned

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* It is generally supposed, however (rightly or wrongly), that merit is not the only qualification required.

Jeremy Taylor, Linacre, Blackstone, Sir Christopher Wren, and Max Müller.

Magdalen College was founded in 1458, by William of Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, and Lord High Chancellor of England. The buildings are (with the exception of the more modern structures), of great beauty ; the Chapel especially is a magnificent building, and has been adorned and improved to a great extent within this century. The Hall and Library, too, are fine rooms. The small inner quadrangle is quite unique. The tower is of exquisite proportions, and is certainly the finest in the University. Altogether, it may safely be asserted that Magdalen is the most beautiful College in Oxford. Magdalen.

The foundation consists of a President (Dr. Bulley), thirty Fellows, thirty Demies ("*Semi-Socii*"), a Schoolmaster (for Magdalen College School), an Usher, a Steward, an Organist, ten Clerks, and sixteen Choristers.

The Demyships are of the annual value of 95*l.* for five years. Some Exhibitions have also been added.

Among the famous men who have been educated at Magdalen are :—Cardinal Wolsey, John Lyly, John Hampden, Cardinal Pole, Dean Colet, Collins, Addison, Gibbon.

Magdalen has always maintained a good position, socially, in the University. The terms "Magdalen man," and "dilettante," were some time ago convertible, and the undergraduates of this College were generally considered supercilious fops ; but this feeling, originally exaggerated, has since died out. On the river Magdalen is not high, nor do her men often appear among the "firsts," but as a

pleasant College she has no equal. The chastened grandeur of the buildings, the splendid Chapel, the grounds beautiful and romantic, with the silver river flowing through, all combine to make Magdalen in outward appearance the fairest of the many fair homes of Oxford. No other College exemplifies so well the quiet beauty of the University.

Brasenose.

Brasenose College was founded in 1509, by the joint benefaction of William Smith, Bishop of Lincoln, and Sir Richard Sutton. The origin of its peculiar name is obscure, but is probably derived from "Brewing House." The College was built where some old Halls had stood, and is hence called the "King's Hall and College of Brasenose." The Chapel was built more than a century later; none of the other parts of the College call for special remark.

The foundation consists of a Principal (Dr. Craddock), fifteen Fellows, and a number of Scholars. Some of the Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* for five years; others, confined in the first instance to Hertford, Manchester, and Marlborough Schools, are tenable for five years, and vary from 36*l.* to 52*l.*

The Hulmeian Exhibitions are confined to members of Brasenose who have entered upon their thirteenth Term. Candidates must be nominated by the Dean of Manchester, and the Rectors of Prestwich and Bury. The Exhibitions are of the annual value of 135*l.* for four years, with 20*l.* to be spent in books to be approved of by the Principal.

There are also some other Exhibitions.

Famous members of Brasenose have been, Elias Ashmole, founder of the Ashmolean Museum,

Burton, author of the "Anatomy of Melancholy," Reginald Heber, F. W. Robertson, Dean Milman.

Brasenose has long been the exponent and example of the physical excellencies of life, and athletics were allowed to occupy a position which quite overshadowed intellectual duties. Now, however, a severer discipline is exercised, and while Brasenose still takes the lead on the river and in other sports, the claims of learning are not ignored. The College society is good, and (though "fast men" are not few) pleasant. Many students will doubtless be induced to enter with the ambition of gaining one of the valuable Hulmeian Exhibitions.

Corpus Christi College was founded in the year 1516, by Richard Fox, Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Privy Seal, "to the praise and honour of God Almighty, the most holy Body of Christ," &c. The buildings are small and simple; in the Chapel is a fine altar-piece by Rubens. The Library has a fine collection of early printed Classics. Corpus.

The foundation consists of a President (Rev. J. M. Wilson), fifteen Fellows, and twenty-four scholars. The Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* (with rooms free) for five years.

There are also some Exhibitions for Commoners of the College. Keble was a member of this College, and in later years John Conington.

Corpus takes the second place as an intellectual College, next to Balliol: if its small numbers are considered, it must be placed first. A class-list seldom appears without the name of a Corpus man in the "first," and to gain a Corpus Scholarship no ordinary classical qualifications are necessary.

Nor are more active pursuits neglected: a few years ago the Corpus boat was third on the river,

and this fact sufficiently indicates the *esprit de corps* and self-denial of the Corpus men. The undergraduates are sociable, and there is generally evident a remarkable amount of unanimity and friendly feeling.

Christ Church.

Christ Church, the most magnificent College in Oxford, was originally founded in 1525 by Cardinal Wolsey. Forty religious houses were suppressed that their revenues might form an endowment for the new institution, which was to be called Cardinal's College. When Wolsey fell under the displeasure of Henry VIII., the works were stopped, but were taken up some years afterwards by the King, who became patron of the foundation, and the College was finally named, in 1546, "The Cathedral Church of Christ in Oxford."

The buildings of Christ Church are very fine, and the large quadrangle and the Hall are magnificent. The gateway and tower were designed by Sir Christopher Wren. The Chapel (the Cathedral of the Diocese) was originally the Church of St. Frideswide, and was restored in 1870 by Sir Gilbert Scott. The new buildings of Christ Church were finished in 1866, and the College is still undergoing repairs. In the Hall and Picture Gallery are some very fine portraits.

The foundation consists of a Dean (Dr. Liddell), six Canons, twenty-eight Senior Students, and fifty-two Junior Students (of which twenty-one are confined to Westminster School). The Junior Studentships are of the annual value of 80*l.* to 100*l.* for five years. There are also ten open Exhibitions of the value of 50*l.* (with dinner and tuition free) tenable for three years, and there are several smaller Exhibitions.

Among the many eminent members of Christ Church have been : The Duke of Wellington, Lord Derby (the late), Mr. Gladstone, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Canning, Sir G. C. Lewis, Otway, John Ruskin, Lord Dalhousie, Lord Byron, William Penn, John Locke, Dr. Pusey, Ben Jonson, Sir Philip Sidney, John and Charles Wesley, Lord Sidmouth, Lord Elgin.

Christ Church is the largest College in Oxford. The Junior Students and the Exhibitioners number nearly seventy, and would form by themselves a College of moderate size. Where the numbers are so great, it is natural that society should be of a most varied character. "Sets" necessarily exist, and generally there is no connexion or association between them. Each goes its own way, and ignores the presence of the others. The College is so large that the existence of "sets" is not so fatal as in other Colleges, for either "set," if desirous, is numerically able to carry on the affairs of the College with success. An undergraduate is certain to settle down in some one of these classes ; from the rich or "fast" "sets" the average man will most probably be debarred. With the exception of several details, Christ Church is not more expensive than other Colleges, and the student may always regulate his rate of expenditure. Christ Church is no doubt the first College in the University, and those who look only for name would do well to send their sons to the most splended educational institution in the world.

Trinity. Trinity College was originally founded and endowed by Edward III., Richard II., and the Priors of Durham, and was called Durham College. Suppressed at the Reformation, it was refounded

in 1554 by Sir Thomas Pope, and dedicated to the "Holy and Undivided Trinity."

The buildings have been restored and improved from time to time; the inner quadrangle was designed by Sir Christopher Wren. The Chapel, which forms the front of the College, was designed by the same architect; it is of a very mean exterior, but contains some beauties within. The gardens are large and may rank with those of New, Worcester, or St. John's.

The foundation of Trinity consists of a President (Rev. S. W. Wayte), twelve Fellows, and thirteen Scholars. The Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* for five years. There are also some small Exhibitions.

Among eminent members of Trinity have been: Lord North, Earl of Chatham, Walter Savage Landor, Lord Selborne, Dr. Newman.

Trinity has lately gained a much higher position than it held twenty years ago, and is now a fairly popular College. It is not low on the river, and has a good Eleven. Attention, too, is given to intellectual pursuits, and Trinity often appears high in the lists. The men are sociable, the gardens are pleasant, and generally the College is a desirable place of residence.

St. John's. St. John's was founded in 1555 by Sir Thomas White, on the site of the old foundation of St. Bernard's College, remains of which are seen in the gateway and the Chapel. The inner quadrangle was designed by Inigo Jones. The Library and Hall are fine rooms; in the Library is a fine collection of theological works.

The foundation consists of a President (Dr. Bellamy), eighteen Fellows, five open Scholarships,

twenty-eight appropriated Scholarships (twenty-one for Merchant Taylors' School, the rest for Coventry, Bristol, Reading, and Tunbridge Schools). These Scholarships are of the annual value of 100*l.*, and the open ones are tenable for five years, the appropriated Merchant Taylors' ones for seven years.

Famous members of St. John's have been: Archbishops Laud and Juxon, Edmund Campion.

This College is one of the many which have seen better days, for though its members have not decreased, its present, either with regard to scholarship or athletics, is not at all equal to its past. Still its exploits are not inconsiderable, and the College takes a fair position in the University. There are many pleasant men, and, it must be confessed, some unpleasant ones. The gardens are very beautiful.

Jesus College was founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1571, at the suggestion of Hugh Price, especially as a place of education for Welshmen. The front of the College was restored in 1856, and the Chapel renovated in 1864. Jesus.

The foundation consists of a Principal (Rev. H. D. Harper), thirteen Fellows (half confined to natives of Wales or Monmouthshire), and twenty-two Scholars. These Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* for five years, and of them, twenty are confined to natives of Wales or Monmouth. There are a large number of Exhibitions restricted in the same way.

The society of Jesus being almost confined to Welshmen, it might seem undesirable for an Englishman to enter.

Nicholas Wadham had purchased estates for the endowment of this College, but died in 1609 be- Wadham.

fore his plans could be completed. Dorothy, his widow, who was daughter of Sir William Petre, carried out the designs of her husband, and the buildings were consecrated in 1610. In 1613 they were finished, and the first Warden was admitted. The buildings of Wadham are very uniform and symmetrical (with the exception of the back quadrangle), and have been adopted as models for several other structures in the University. The Hall is a splendid room, and ranks only second to Christ Church Hall. The Chapel is small, but in good taste; and the gardens are exquisitely beautiful. The rooms of Wadham are superior as a whole to any in the University.

The foundation consists of a Warden (Dr. Griffiths), fourteen Fellows, and fifteen Scholars. The Scholarships are of the annual value of 80*l.* for five years. Ten Exhibitions were founded by Dr. Hody; four for the study of Hebrew, six for the study of Greek. They are of the value of 50*l.* for five years.

Various other exhibitions are in the gift of the Warden and Fellows.

Among eminent members of Wadham have been: Sir Christopher Wren, Admiral Blake, Lord Westbury, Dr. Bentley.*

The Royal Society was first founded in this College, and the able disciples of Auguste Comte, R. Congreve, F. Harrison, and E. S. Beesly, received their education at Wadham.

Wadham at present certainly does not stand in the first rank of Colleges, and probably it may be

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* Bentley, though a Cambridge man, was also an M.A. of Oxford.

some years before it regains the reputation it once possessed. A fatal system of cliques proved its ruin ; the number and quality of the men fell off year by year, until it seemed as though matters had reached their lowest ebb. The eight was almost the " tail boat," the eleven was seldom victorious, and names of Wadham men in the class-list were only conspicuous by their absence. But a brighter future is dawning ; a better class of men are entering, and success in the Schools has become more frequent. If this continues, the College will rise again, and take a position which will accord well with its outward appearance, its fine buildings, and its beautiful gardens.

Pembroke (originally Broadgates Hall) was founded in the year 1624, by James I., " at the costs and charges of Thomas Tesdale and Richard Wightwick." It derives its name from William Herbert, Earl of Pembroke, Chancellor of the University at the time of foundation. Pembroke.

The buildings are unpretentious, the chapel being a very ordinary edifice. The Hall is modern, and is a fine room.

The foundation consists of a Master (Rev. Evan Evans), ten Fellows, and twenty-four Scholars. The Scholarships are of various value, from 90*l.* to 50*l.*, and tenable for different terms of years. Several are restricted to certain schools, but are thrown open in default of properly qualified candidates.

Famous members of Pembroke have been : Bishop Bonner, John Pym, Beaumont, Blackstone, George Whitefield, Sir Thomas Browne, Samuel Johnson.

Pembroke is a popular College ; the social and

intellectual tone is decidedly good, and success attends its efforts on the river and in the Schools.

Worcester. Worcester College was founded in 1714, by Sir Thomas Cookes, of Bentley, in Worcestershire. Originally this was Gloucester Hall, a School for Benedictine monks ; then it was changed into St. John Baptist Hall, and finally it was purchased by the executors of Sir Thomas Cookes, and named Worcester College.

The foundation consists of a Provost (Dr. Cotton), thirteen Fellows, and sixteen Scholars. These Scholarships are of the annual value of 75*l.*, tenable for five years, six being restricted to persons educated at Bromsgrove School, and one to natives of Staffordshire. There are also a number of Exhibitions of less value.

The chief features of Worcester are the Chapel and the gardens. The Chapel is of great beauty, and has only been completed within the last ten years. The gardens are among the loveliest in the University, and contain a fine lake.

Among famous members of Worcester are: Lovelace, De Quincey, Sir Kenelm Digby, Foote.

Worcester is by its position somewhat isolated from the other Colleges, and this perhaps accounts for the fact that few Worcester men are met in general society. This is to be regretted, for there are many pleasant undergraduates, and Worcester as a place of residence is not at all to be despised.

Keble. Keble College was built by subscription as a memorial to John Keble, some time Fellow and Tutor of Oriel. It was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1870.

The buildings are of a most peculiar appearance, and with their layers of white and coloured bricks,

institute unpleasant comparison with the more quiet aspect of the older Colleges. The Chapel is a fine structure, most elaborately adorned. A Hall and Library have been more recently added.

Several Scholarships, of the annual value of 80*l.* to 60*l.*, for four years, have been founded.

Keble College was founded with the object of providing persons desirous of academical education, and willing to live economically, with a College wherein sober living and high culture of the mind may be combined with Christian training based upon the principles of the Church of England.

Keble has now, after a severe struggle, taken its place among the older Colleges. We say after a struggle, for with institutions so old as the Oxford Colleges, the advent of a new establishment, especially when it aims professedly at economy and frugal living, must always be regarded with dislike and even contempt. It will probably be many years before this feeling disappears, and Keble men must expect for a time to be treated with quiet condescension by members of the more ancient bodies. But Keble is steadily working its way forward, and has already taken a high position on the river and in the cricket-field. Its success in the Schools has not been marked, and probably, from its sectarian nature, will never be great.

Keble bids fair to become the largest College in Oxford, and there are always a large number of candidates for admission who are turned away from want of room.

Life at Keble, though somewhat shackled by rules and regulations, is fairly pleasant. Perhaps the two most obnoxious points in the Keble *régime* are :—(1) The system of taking every meal to-

gether in Hall. (2) The prohibition of the introduction of any wine or groceries from outside the College. It is evident that the first regulation interferes with the select and pleasant reunions of breakfast or lunch, and perhaps forces a man to see more of his neighbours than is pleasant to himself. The second, though not equally irksome, seems to place a somewhat unwise restriction on individual liberty. There are other matters in which a stricter discipline is enforced than is usual at a University. But where so much is good it is ungracious to cavil at trivialities, and small disadvantages may be borne for the sake of greater benefits offered.

Hertford. This College has a curious history. At the close of the thirteenth century Elias de Hertford built a Hall for the use of Scholars, known as Hart or Hertford Hall. In 1740, Dr. Richard Newton, then Principal, obtained a charter of incorporation for the Society, which was to be named Hertford College. The endowments, however, proved insufficient, and the College was dissolved in 1805. Part of the property was transferred to the University, and from it the Hertford Scholarship was founded. The remainder was transferred to Magdalen Hall. This Hall was originally founded by Bishop Waynflete, as an accommodation for students previous to their admission to Magdalen College, and became an independent foundation in 1601. In 1816 the President and Fellows of Magdalen College were desirous of recovering the Hall, and obtained an Act of Parliament by which they were enabled to acquire the site of Hertford for Magdalen Hall. In 1820, new buildings were erected, and Magdalen Hall was transferred to

the site where the old Hertford College had stood.

In 1874 another Act of Parliament was passed, by which Magdalen Hall was dissolved, and its Principal and Scholars were incorporated as a College under the title of "the Principal, Fellows, and Scholars of Hertford College."

There are at present fifteen Fellows, thirty-three Scholars, and a few Exhibitioners. The new Scholarships, twenty-three in number, are of the annual value of 100*l.* for five years, and most of them are open.

The present Principal is the Rev. H. Boyd.

Famous members of Hertford have been: Hobbes, Tyndall, Lord Clarendon, C. J. Fox, Selden, Dean Swift.

It is scarcely possible at present to estimate the position of Hertford. It may be said that it is growing in public favour, and is the home of a very able staff of Fellows, and not a few pleasant undergraduates. When finer buildings represent the College, a brilliant future may be confidently expected.

St. Mary Hall.

This Hall was originally the Parsonage-house of St. Mary's Church, till Edward II., in 1325, conveyed it, with the Church, to Oriel College. In 1333 it was converted into a separate academical Hall.

The Principal (who is appointed by Oriel) is at present the Rev. D. P. Chase.

There are four Dyke Scholarships, confined to natives of Somerset, Devon, or Cornwall, of the annual value of 60*l.* for four years.

Commoners may compound for battels by a fixed annual payment of 80*l.*, payable in advance.

Eminent members of St. Mary Hall have been: Dr. John Hunter, Sir Thomas More.

New Inn Hall.

This Hall was originally known, in 1340, as "Trilleck's Inn," and served as the Royal Mint in 1642. The present buildings were erected in 1833.

Principal and Tutor: Dr. Cornish.

Sir William Blackstone was once Principal.

St. Alban Hall.

This Hall was the property, in 1200, of Robert de St. Alban. In 1547 it became the possession of Merton, to which College it still pays rent.

The present Principal is the Rev. W. C. Salter.

Residents in Hall pay an annual sum of about 60*l.*, which includes most charges.

Several eminent men have been connected with the Hall, including Philip Massinger and Archbishop Whately, who was the Principal.

St. Edmund Hall.

This Hall is said to have been founded by Edmund le Riche, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1233. It was purchased by the Provost of Queen's in 1557, and the latter College has the right of nominating the Principal.

The present Principal is the Rev. E. Moore.

Students may pay 27*l.* at the commencement of each term, which sum represents all necessary items, except washing and lights.

Charsley's Hall.

This is a private Hall, the residence of the licensed Master, Mr. Charsley. The annual charge is 75*l.* per annum.

Choice of a College.

The average student has generally, in the choice of a College, a problem of no ordinary difficulty to solve. There are some whose selection is determined by the prospect of gaining a Scholarship on some particular foundation, or by the connexion that may exist between a College and

their family or School. Those whose fathers or grandfathers have been educated at a certain College will naturally feel disposed to proceed thither themselves. But there are many, probably a majority, for whom there do not exist such deciding motives, and to these a few suggestions may be offered.

The aspect in which many men will regard a College has to do with its expensiveness or otherwise. But we think that the notion that one College, in itself, is in great measure more expensive than another is a mistaken one. The amount of caution money required, and the room or furniture rent, do not differ much at the various Colleges. The establishment charges vary between 10*l.* and 25*l.* At Balliol, Exeter, Christ Church, and Pembroke, they are relatively high; at Wadham, Worcester, Trinity, Hertford, Merton, New, and Oriel, they are low. But this difference does not amount on an average to more than 9*l.* a year.

Expenses.

The expense of food, too, must always be nearly similar. At some Colleges there is a fixed limit for meals, but the amount so limited will generally be found but little less than the sums expended at other Colleges.

It is necessary to insist strongly that the greater part of College expenses may be regulated by the undergraduate himself, and the allowance he requires will, of course, depend upon his own character and the nature of his friends. In most Colleges there is an expensive "set," and if his lot is cast with these, his expenditure may be indefinite; whereas, if he chooses friends of moderate tastes, his expenses will not differ much from those of a

man of similar character at another College. We do not, then, advise parents to give too much heed to the varying charges at Colleges. Expenses are generally created by the undergraduates themselves, and in their hands rests the power to live extravagantly or moderately.

But if a College has a decided reputation for extravagance, and if a man of moderate means feels that he is likely to be brought much into contact with a fast "set" at that College, he should certainly choose a place of residence where he may keep his expenses more under his own control.

College for Reading Men.

Those who intend to pass their University career in hard study, and who therefore desire a congenial home, with encouragements to learning, should by all means enter at Balliol or Corpus. They will find the matriculation not easy, and the work ordered with strict discipline; and they will be able to prosecute their studies to the best advantage, and to the utmost of their inclination. At Corpus, where a high intellectual standard is evident, there is also a remarkable absence of "cliquishness."

Christ Church, with its splendid name and history, will probably attract many, and will afford opportunities for the satisfaction of the most varied and opposite tastes.

Brasenose and University will, by their athletic reputation, have charms for many, though from the latter College some may be deterred by the difficulty of the matriculation.

Magdalen.

To those whose taste or abilities seem to lie in no definite direction we decidedly recommend Magdalen. Here they will find pleasant society, most beautiful buildings and grounds, and all that

should make life happy. This is the *beau idéal* of a College, and we believe no one will repent a choice which will make him a member of Magdalen.

Trinity and Exeter possess claims to consideration, and are certainly pleasant Colleges. To those who wish for a quiet inexpensive life (not necessarily lacking in opportunities for amusement) Wadham and Worcester offer themselves.

Halls.

We should not advise any man, unless absolutely poor, to proceed to a Hall, or become a member of the "Unattached." The Halls are no doubt admirable institutions, but it is evident that they do not possess the same advantages as the Colleges, nor can they confer an equal prestige upon their members. Moreover at several of the smaller Colleges it is possible to live for a sum not greatly different, and the extra expense incurred is assuredly worthy of the object. But it is impossible to speak quite definitely on this matter. Life at one College is so similar to life at another that much calculation is rendered nugatory. Whichever the student may choose, he will probably find pleasant friends, and no lack of opportunities for enjoying life, both on its intellectual and social side.

Early residence undesirable, for many reasons.

When the College has been chosen, the student should send in his name to the College authorities, who generally prefer a long notice. Generally speaking, we should advise no one to enter the University until he is nineteen years of age. There are cases in which immediate residence is necessary, as when a man has obtained a Scholarship; but, with these exceptions, early residence is unwise. In the first place, a very young man does not give himself a fair chance in any of the examinations.

His mind cannot possibly be developed at that early period, and for this deficiency he is obliged to compensate by more intense application to his studies, labour which may injure him, intellectually and physically, for life. A student who is conscious of ambitious aims will hardly perhaps be deterred by such arguments, but he will certainly understand in after years how much greater success, and with how much less exertion, he might have attained by commencing his Oxford studies at a reasonable age.

Again, for those whose intellect shows no signs of ulterior development, early residence may prove most mischievous. A young man, almost a boy, plunged at once from the restraints of school into the freedom of Oxford life, may not possess the moral strength which is necessary, and may fall a victim to the temptations which are so numerous and so alluring.

The abortive careers of many men are due to the haste with which they plunge into a life for which only a manlier character is fitted, and the success which might attend the efforts of a more developed mind will probably be denied to the labour, however intense, of inexperienced intellect.

CHAPTER III.

EXPENSES OF OXFORD LIFE.

Definiteness impossible.

IT is naturally difficult to treat with perfect accuracy a question which must vary with different Colleges, and which in a great measure depends upon the inclination of individual undergraduates. It must be premised then that in this chapter the statements made are somewhat general, and that the estimates given will not hold good in every case. We think, however, that they will be found, on the average, correct.

Oxford career not cheap if ordinary comfort is desired.

In the first place, we must warn men not to place too much faith in the statements and estimates which are industriously circulated concerning the inexpensive character of an Oxford career. It is often said, to encourage young men to enter the University, that a degree may be gained for a comparatively small sum, and that it is an easy matter to live comfortably and as a gentleman upon half the money usually spent. Many men, on the faith of such assurances, come up to Oxford only to find that they have been wofully deceived; that it is possible, certainly, to live upon the income mentioned, but only on condition of being debarred from receiving and giving hospitality; living on hermits' fare; denying themselves sometimes the necessaries of life; and generally dragging on a wearisome and solitary existence. If they refuse to lead such a life, enter into College sports and festivities, and associate with men of larger means,

Unwise to place faith in a small estimate of expenses.

the inevitable result follows; they run into debt, perhaps become reckless, and find in the end that their College career has cost them twice as much as the amount they were assured was amply sufficient. It must be remembered that young men of nineteen or twenty have usually but little experience in keeping accounts, and are often unable to regulate their expenses. They thus easily, and almost unwittingly, run into debt; and, once there, all know how difficult it is to be extricated, unless a fair supply of money is at hand. Such is the experience of many men, and we are sure that no greater unkindness can be done a young man, who has been brought up to enjoy life even moderately, than to urge him to enter the University upon the understanding that he will be able to live there upon a sum which must eventually be found to be miserably insufficient. It is better that he should not go at all, than that his life should be made wretched, or perhaps ruined. It must be distinctly understood that we are writing here for those whose parents do not doom them to, and who themselves do not expect, a total abstinence from all social comforts, but who hope to take their place in a College on the same footing as the general run of their contemporaries. Those whose moral courage enables them to avoid ordinary social pleasures, and to devote themselves to their studies alone, are worthy of all praise. Here we have in our mind the ordinary undergraduate, who is sent to Oxford to work, yet not to eschew pleasure altogether; to be careful in money matters, yet not to feel the pinch of poverty. And it is these who will most feel the evil results of a faith in the estimates which are volunteered with all good

Evil results of such faith, to an ordinary sociable undergraduate.

intentions, but, surely, in total ignorance of the practical aspect of the question.

For instance it is said that a man, with proper care and economy, may live at a College* for 140*l.* a year, and pass through his career to his degree for 400*l.* And no doubt he can do so, but only by the strictest parsimony ; by living on bread and butter for his breakfast, bread and butter for his lunch, meat and cheese for his dinner ; by stinting his allowance of beer, and refusing himself wine ; by having a tailor's bill at which a poor clerk might smile ; by refusing to subscribe to College clubs, and withdrawing himself from the society of his equals ; by borrowing his neighbour's books and his neighbour's spoons—in fact by living as a "smug." This is not an exaggerated picture of the life of many, very many, undergraduates ; and what a contrast this to the bright picture a young man naturally forms of a University Life. He is obliged to decline hospitality, for his proper pride will not allow him to accept that which he knows his means do not enable him to return. He refuses to row, for he cannot afford the subscriptions, or he sees that he will not be able to take his place in the College Torpid or Eight, where the attendant expenses are far too heavy for his scanty allowance. He seeks the society only of men like himself, or perhaps, in lieu of such, prefers his own ; his temper becomes soured, and the man who came up to Oxford with bright and pleasant hopes,

Example of a cheap estimate.

What it implies.

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* It is of course understood that the academical year consists in reality of only six months ; so that when it is said to be possible to live for 140*l.* per annum, it is meant that the sum is spent in half the time.

retires thence anything but a grateful son ; with no happy memories to cheer him, and, it may be, with a moroseness which will cling to him throughout his life.

Expenses. We will now endeavour to give some idea of the expenses of Oxford Life by first detailing the various necessary items, and next making a few remarks on those expenses which depend upon the Preliminary. man himself. Now to begin with his entrance at a College. He will first pay a certain sum as Caution Money. caution money ; which is intended to secure the College against any loss it might sustain through his death, bad behaviour, &c. This is usually 30*l.*, sometimes 25*l.* or 20*l.* The money is returned when his name is removed from the College books. If he takes his name off immediately upon gaining his first degree, he receives (generally) the sum intact ; if he allows his name to remain, the annual fees, &c., are deducted.

Admission Fees. Then there is an admission fee generally of 5*l.*, sometimes of less amount, and next there is the Matriculation fee to the University of 2*l.* 10*s.*

Purchase (or hire) of Furniture. In most cases a further large expense will be entailed by the necessity of purchasing the furniture of the outgoing tenant of the rooms. On leaving the rooms the furniture is again sold, allowing for dilapidations, &c., to the new-comer. In some cases the furniture belongs to the College, and an annual sum, amounting to 6 or 7 per cent. on its value, is paid for its hire. It is usually more economical in the end to purchase the furniture at once, for the rent for three or four years will amount to much more than the sum paid for dilapidations by the student at the end of his tenancy under the first system.

There are of course other minor expenses falling upon the freshman; a stock of china, glass, and other domestic articles must be laid in. Generally these may be purchased from the scouts, who always collect from their former masters a large supply of such necessaries. Moreover a cap and gown must be purchased, and these, with other trivial matters, may amount easily to 7*l.* or 8*l.* Minor Expenses.

Thus the student's preliminary expenses will amount to about 45*l.*, exclusive of the purchase of furniture. This, of course, varies very much in value, according to the means or taste of the outgoing tenant. It may amount to as much as 80*l.*, or range as low as 20*l.* The average is from 25*l.* to 45*l.* Average Estimate.

The most important items, of course, in Oxford expenses are the terminal "Battels." These accounts represent the College expenses of the term—all the meals; the establishment charges; the tuition fees, coals, room-rent, and, in some cases, hire of furniture, and various other smaller items. The tuition fees in most Colleges amount to 22*l.* a year, sometimes for three years, sometimes till the last examination has been passed. The establishment charges (for servants, &c.) are generally 15*l.* a year; and the room rent averages about 11*l.* a year, and if the furniture be hired from the College, an extra 2*l.* or 3*l.* a term must be added. These charges may vary with each College somewhat, but we think that the estimate we have given will be found fairly accurate. The charges for meals naturally depend greatly on the tastes of individual undergraduates, for it is quite within his power to determine the amount and quality of meat and drink he shall consume. As Terminal Battels, Elements in. Meals.

we said before, many men live on comparatively nothing; but the ordinary man who has decided to live in only moderate comfort, and who is not particularly stinted for money, will generally find himself living at the rate of those around him.

Average of Battels.

Speaking roughly, he will scarcely be able to keep his Battels below 32*l.* a term (often they may be 34*l.*); and when some special expenses have been entailed (as in the Summer Term), they may be over 37*l.* Taking 33*l.* as an average then, we shall not err in excess.* Of course, if a man has many friends, in or out of College, he must entertain them in some way, either with breakfasts, lunches, or dinners, and the cost of these will materially increase his Battels.† The kitchen bill of an ordinary man may be about 12*l.*, and his buttery bill (for bread and butter, beer, &c.), 3*l.* a term. The price of dinners vary much at different Colleges, and they are conducted on various systems. Sometimes a fixed price is charged, and students are quite dependent upon the cook, sometimes men are charged for what they eat. A plain dinner may be generally obtained (including beer) for 2*s.* or 2*s.* 3*d.*, and a very fair meal for 3*s.* Weekly accounts are sent in to each man, where he is charged for all he has consumed during the week, and these are generally about 1*l.* 18*s.* or 2*l.* (It must be remembered that in these various items are included—all meals, coals, messenger, gate bill, &c.) Coals may cost about 30*s.* a term, and the smaller expenses may amount to 2*l.* When

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* We have not here included the cost of the hire of furniture, 2*l.* or 3*l.*

† For instance, a large breakfast-party may cost 3*l.*; a lunch the same; and two friends to dinner, 6*s.* or 7*s.*

these items are added to tuition fees, establishment charges, room rent, &c., they will together amount to over 33*l.* a term; and the average undergraduate will not be able to reduce this sum by much. At the end of each term it is usual to give a gratuity to the scouts of the staircase—1*l.* to one, and 10*s.* to the other; or 1*l.* to each. Then there is the washing bill, which may amount to 5*l.* a year. We may next mention the expenses of travelling to and from Oxford, which on the average can scarcely be less than 6*l.* a year; when the student resides a long distance from Oxford, of course a much larger sum is required.

33*l.* a Term.

Scouts.

Travelling Expenses.

An undergraduate will generally feel himself obliged to subscribe to the College Clubs, and he will hardly escape for less than 3*l.* a year. We think a man who is not absolutely poor, ought to make it a point of honour to support such institutions; for, as we have attempted to show elsewhere, an ordinary College owes in a large degree its reputation to the position it takes on the river or in the cricket-field; and this cannot be a high one if its Clubs are not properly supported. We confess that there is often an excessive amount of moral pressure applied, for this purpose, to men who are really unable to subscribe, and whose poverty is held to be a mere sham. Such men are placed in a cruel and unenviable position; but we believe that generally only a little self-denial is needed to raise the sum required. A parent who allows his son 160*l.* a year can surely increase this allowance by 3*l.* to enable the latter to support institutions which have become necessary. Not to mention the laudable object of these Clubs, it is not possible for those outside Oxford to conceive

Subscriptions to College Institutions.

the amount of obloquy a student meets by refusing to subscribe.

Expenses of Boating. If a man boats he will be obliged to subscribe to Salter's the sum of 3*l.* 3*s.* a year. Connected with boating there are other expenses, such as a boating costume, &c. If the student is lucky enough to row in his College Torpid or Eight, there is a subscription of 3*l.* 10*s.* to be paid to the University Boat Club; and training will also entail a few more expenses. But, generally, boating is the most economical, as it is the most healthy, of exercises; and if all its expenses incurred during four years' residence be added together, they will not amount usually to 20*l.*, a sum certainly not disproportionate to the pleasure and benefit derived.

The Union. Most men, we suppose, will become members of the Union, to which the entrance fee is 1*l.*, and the terminal subscription 1*l.* 5*s.*

Clubs. Besides these almost necessary subscriptions, there are others, connected with the College, purely optional—*e.g.*, Wine Clubs, where a membership will entail subscriptions of from 6*l.* to 10*l.* a year.

Tradesmen. And next, with regard to tradesmen. We shall speak on the general and moral aspect of this question in the chapter on "Social Life;" here we shall deal with it from a purely financial point of view.

Necessary ones. There are five tradesmen at least whose services will generally be found indispensable—viz., the tailor, grocer, wine-merchant, bookseller, and bootmaker. To these often no doubt will be added others

Additional accounts. —the ironmonger, jeweller, upholsterer, chemist, perfumer, picture-dealer, &c. However, these are not so necessary as the former, and we strongly advise men to pay them as little attention as possible.

Small articles bought on the spur of the moment, in passing a shop, will be found, when the bills are sent in, to have cost an extraordinary amount of money. The unfortunate undergraduate will notice with wonder that he has been charged for six pairs of kid gloves at 5*s.* each, a neat scarf pin at 3*l.*, or a fancy table at four guineas—articles pressed upon his acceptance by an insinuating tradesman, and long ago lost, broken, or stolen. Warning and Advice.

We advise men always to insist upon their bills being sent in terminally; and, more than this, to insist upon paying them. Tradesmen will often defer settlement till the end of a man's career, or, at all events, for several years, and the student will generally find that his bills come to double the amount he had anticipated. A terminal settlement will save a vast amount of trouble and money, and the necessity of paying large and perhaps inconvenient accounts at the end of several years will be avoided. It is often impossible to pay at the time of purchase, and difficult at the end of term; but there is no doubt that the system of long credit is the bane of Oxford, and the longer a man keeps out of the debtor's slough of despond, the better will it be for his welfare and peace of mind. Terminal payment advisable. Credit System.

It must be understood that in speaking of Oxford expenses, we assume that the undergraduate will find himself in clothes, wine, groceries, &c., in Oxford itself. He may of course procure all these necessaries elsewhere, but none the less should he count them among his University expenses.

With regard to the tailor's account, we cannot speak definitely of the amount a man may spend upon his tailor. Some men may dress on 7*l.* a year—some may require 100*l.* We do not suppose Tailor.

the ordinary undergraduate will be able to keep his annual bill below 25*l.*, supposing that he buys all his clothes in Oxford. If he buys his hats, gloves, shirts, ties, &c., at his tailor's, his bill may perhaps be 5*l.* more. For 25*l.* it is possible to dress respectably, and as a gentleman. If a man wishes to "dress well," he must expect to see his bill 40*l.* or 50*l.* A good suit of clothes will always cost 4*l.* 5*s.* or 5*l.*; a dress suit, 6*l.* or 7*l.*; a great-coat, 3*l.* 10*s.* or 4*l.*; trousers, 25*s.* to 30*s.*; a black coat, 3*l.*, and so on. A man always requires two ordinary suits in a year, several pairs of trousers, and generally a black coat and overcoat. It may thus be seen that 25*l.* a year is no extravagant amount for a tailor's bill. Of course these are Oxford credit charges: for ready money a large reduction may be made.

Grocer. From the grocer various articles will be required —tea, coffee, sugar, candles, dessert, &c.; and 2*l.* 10*s.* a term is a very moderate allowance.

Bookseller. A man's book bill depends greatly upon his tastes; and the accounts of a pass-man and an honour-man are necessarily widely different. The former, if he only buys the books necessary for his examinations, may spend 4*l.*, or even less; for the latter, 15*l.* a year is not an extravagant sum, unless he determines to live upon the charity of his neighbours. The undergraduate who has a love for literary pursuits, or who rejoices in calf-skin and morocco, may spend 100*l.* in a very short time, for there is no ruling passion which involves such a large outlay as a taste for collecting books.

Wine. A man's wine bill depends especially upon the size of the circle of his acquaintances, and their capacities or tastes. If he have many friends,

whom he entertains, and who are able to imbibe much Port and Sherry, his account may be 40*l.* or 50*l.* a year; nor would this for a man of good means be an extravagant allowance. But for the student of limited income, and whose hospitality must be in accordance with his means, 15*l.* a year should be the outside of his wine bill. It is impossible to pass life at Oxford without a certain amount of wine, and we do not think the quantity represented by 15*l.* is excessive. Wine as supplied by Oxford tradesmen generally combines the worst quality with the highest price, and their cheap wines are most deleterious mixtures. We should certainly advise men to procure their wine from a good merchant in London (supposing it is not supplied from home), where they will get far better wines at a more moderate price: it is even better to pay a larger price for a sound wine than to ruin the constitution with cheap concoctions. At some Colleges, wine (with groceries, &c.) is supplied from the Common Room; and this in most cases is an excellent plan.

Oxford Wine bad.

We do not suppose a man will be able to keep his bootmaker's bill below 3*l.*, however economically disposed he may be, and this sum will be often doubled.

Besides the necessary expenses we have mentioned the student will always find himself involved in various minor expenses with tradesmen—such as the upholsterer, china merchant, picture dealer, &c. Few men will avoid such small bills, and we shall adopt a moderate estimate in making them amount to 15*l.* a year.

Minor expenses.

There is lastly that large item which may come under the head of "indefinite and unaccountable

Ready Money, need of.

expenses," for which ready money is required. It is useless to attempt to enter into details here, for different men have different methods of spending, but all do it more or less. The undergraduate will find that he needs a fair store of ready cash to meet the calls which come upon him everywhere. Multitudinous "tips," hotel dinners, billiards, small subscriptions, and hosts of other matters all agreeing in one thing only—the necessity for payment.

If a man indulges in smoking, an additional expense of perhaps 5*l.* is incurred; and if this be included in "indefinite expenses," an allowance of 25*l.* as ready money is not extravagant.

Many other expenses possible.

We have now spoken of the most important items in University expenses. No doubt there are many still remaining for a large number of men, but they chiefly depend upon the idiosyncrasies of individuals, nor can they be classified. We will now tabulate the expenses, and thence infer the allowance necessary for the ordinary undergraduate.

Expenses upon Entrance.

	£	s.	d.	
Caution Money . .	30	0	0	(returned)
Admission Fee . .	5	0	0	
Matriculation Fee. .	2	10	0	
Purchase of Furniture	30	0	0	(returned)
Minor Expenses . .	8	0	0	
	£75	10	0	

Annual Expenses.

	£	s.	d.
Average Battels . .	99	0	0
Tailor	25	0	0
Grocer	7	10	0
Wine	15	0	0
Bookseller	4	0	0
Washing	5	0	0
Scouts' "Tips" . .	5	0	0
College Subscriptions	3	0	0
Union „	3	15	0
Salter's	3	3	0
Travelling Expenses .	6	0	0
Bootmaker	3	0	0
Various Small Bills .	15	0	0
Ready Money . . .	25	0	0
	£219	8	0

General Estimate.

With regard to the Entrance expenses, if the furniture be hired from the College, a deduction of 30*l.* may be made, but in that case 8*l.* or 9*l.* a a year must be added, as the cost of hire, to the Battels.

From the foregoing table it may be seen that 220*l.* a year will maintain a young man at Oxford in comfort, and with the addition of a few luxuries. No doubt the amount of several of the items may be diminished: 5*l.* may be taken off the wine bill, 5*l.* off the ready money, and 5*l.* off the tailor's bill. The total may perhaps be lessened by 20*l.* with the exercise of some self-denial, and a gentlemanly appearance still maintained. Less than 200*l.* will hardly be sufficient.

200*l.* a year not too much.

Decrease of expenses in last year.

At most colleges after the end of his third year, the undergraduate no longer pays tuition fees, and above 20*l.* is thus to be deducted from his annual expenses. At the same period too, men are generally obliged to go into lodgings, and are in that case no longer charged with the whole amount of Establishment Expenses, which are lessened by about 10*l.* But though this and a few other items are saved by going into lodgings, we do not think the plan is on the whole an economical one; often in fact it adds to the annual expenses. It is impossible to procure decent lodgings under 16*s.* or 17*s.* a week, and the extras often amount to 5*s.* more. Generally the food in lodgings is much dearer than in College, and certainly not so good. There are other disadvantages also; for instance, there are no men-servants in lodgings, and the slatternly maid-servants are but a sorry substitute for the ready and generally useful scout. So that we should advise men to remain in College as long as possible, even if they are obliged to be content with somewhat inferior rooms. They sometimes are allowed a choice, unless the College is full, and we recommend them to remain inside the walls, not to prefer the visionary liberty of residence in lodgings.

Lodgings often no saving.

We have seen that generally after his third year the student reduces his expenses by over 20*l.* In some Colleges this is 30*l.*; and sometimes as much as 40*l.* Moreover, the Union subscriptions are only paid for three years; and this represents a saving of 3*l.* 15*s.*; but, as we said, often this is neutralised by the extra expenses of lodgings; and we shall not be far from the truth in placing the student's expenses in his fourth year at not less than 180*l.* It must be distinctly understood that

the estimate we have given allows for no extravagances on the one hand, and no pinching on the other. We do not pretend to write here for the man who will live on 150*l.* a year ; while if the student has any expensive tastes the amount we have given may be easily swelled to 250*l.* or 300*l.* 200*l.* a year will support a man quietly as a gentleman, but no more. If he be fond of dress, books, horses ; if he has many friends and entertains much, he should certainly have at least 300*l.* a year. The estimate given does not allow for any extravagance.

Thus, then, if the student resides three years and a half, the cost of his maintenance will probably be 700*l.* at the least; if he resides four years another 100*l.* may be added, and another year may increase this by 180*l.* Very few men, however, continue to reside after four years ; Pass men often take their degree in three years, or three years and a half. Cost of maintenance.

To these expenses must be added the various University Fees for examinations and degrees. The former amount to about 4*l.*; the B.A. fee is 7*l.* 10*s.*, the M.A. fee 12*l.* There are also the various College fees for degrees, which vary very much, and range up to 10*l.* Examination and Degree expenses.

In conclusion, if the cost of a man's career from his matriculation to his M.A. cost him no more than 850*l.* as a Pass Man, or 950*l.* as an Honour Man, he may certainly be congratulated on the result. Conclusion.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SOCIAL LIFE.

To give a clear idea of the social life of Oxford it will be well to describe the ordinary day of an undergraduate, who, while duly appreciating pleasure, does not neglect the sterner duties of his existence. By these means we shall be able to include in our sketch those various amusements and occupations by which life is made pleasant and labour relieved.

The freshman, fabulous tortures of.

And, first, to speak of the freshman. All who have occupied this envied, yet unenviable, position, will confess that they entered upon their Oxford career with eagerness tempered by some degree of awe. The name of freshman has denoted from time immemorial the possession of certain marked attributes—some amount of shyness, great reverence for the outward signs of University dignity, and a trembling anxiety not to overstep the limits of his especial privileges. This unfortunate person has always been supposed to furnish the butt for the bright wits of the College. His credulous mind is made the receptacle of strange stories, concoctions of unblushing ingenuity. He is asked to believe firmly in impossible events, in the history of exploits which, outside the hallowed walls of Oxford, could only raise a smile. His person is the object for practical jokes of an alarming character; crackers burst from his fire, stones fly through his windows; he is aroused from midnight

slumbers by the nailing up of his oak, or by shrill cries of "Fire!" "Thieves!" &c. An examination impends threateningly over him, while his terror is heightened by exaggerated stories of the rigour and undeviating cruelty of examiners. In fact it is generally considered, outside Oxford, that the first two terms of a freshman form anything but a pleasant period of existence, and are only made bearable by the hope of future glories. Of course this statement of the case bears a very false aspect; the first term of the freshman is not passed in so miserable a manner as is here delineated. That he has several ordeals of more or less severity, through which he must pass, is perfectly true; but neither are his trials very terrible, nor are undergraduates generally so ill-bred as to take a mean advantage of the innocence or helplessness of a new-comer. There are certain rules of etiquette which freshmen are held bound to observe, the chief being that he is forbidden to return the hospitality of his seniors in his first term. In returning a call, he is to call until he finds the man in, and as a rule to leave no card upon his senior, though in many cases he well knows that when the latter has called upon him his absence was first carefully noted. It is as well to abide by these and such-like rules, for their transgression is held to be a result of conceit or a pushing disposition, qualities undesirable at all events in a freshman. In returning hospitality he should wait until his second term, and confine his attentions at first to his fellow-freshmen. These latter are often so numerous that he may easily choose from them a congenial spirit; or, in default of such, he will surely find many of his old schoolfellows or friends

First Term not miserable.

Rules of etiquette for freshmen.

at other Colleges. In College he will most certainly receive many invitations to breakfast or "wine," and if he be a public school man his engagement-list should be very full. In fact, the life of a freshman is by no means a joyless one, if we except the painful consciousness, which all must have felt, of being scanned by curious and critical eyes, and the knowledge that one's measure, intellectual and social, is being taken by accomplished hands. Otherwise the novelty of the life, the varied enjoyments, and the pleasing sense of freedom, certainly tend to make the days pass happily. The first awkwardness soon wears off, and the freshman takes his place in the College ranks with proper dignity, learns to speak of river and hunting-field with easy freedom, and is ready, in his turn, to patronise with lofty superiority the men whose position was once his own. The transition is so rapid that the period of probation is neither long nor very burdensome, and only carries with it that slight feeling of strangeness which is incident to the adoption of any new line in life.

Freshman's life happy.

Apportionment of rooms.

The freshman must not hope that luxurious rooms will be at once apportioned to him. Often indeed he will not even be able to enter College for one or two terms, which he will be obliged to spend in lodgings, entrusted to the tender mercies of an Oxford landlady. If he is more fortunate, and have rooms in College assigned him, he must expect to live in attics at an enormous elevation above the ground, and be content with a dismal carpet and rickety chairs. It may be two years before he changes to better rooms, which perhaps he will only enjoy for a year; for, as a rule,

longer residence than three years in College is not allowed. At this period he will be obliged to migrate into lodgings, where he will remain until he has passed his last examination.

The Oxford day falls naturally into three divisions—the morning, a period of work; the afternoon, of exercise; and the evening, of amusement and work combined, or alternated. The Oxford day, description of.

The first event of the day is, of course, attendance at the College Chapel. With regard to this the various Colleges differ both in time and regulations. In some cases the service is held at eight o'clock; sometimes later, at ten o'clock; sometimes attendance is necessary on four mornings in the week, sometimes only an appearance on Sunday is required, and in a few Colleges even this is unnecessary. For Chapel is substituted, in some instances, a roll-call at the same time, at which, as an alternative, undergraduates may present themselves. Besides morning Chapel, there is usually an afternoon service at five o'clock. The benefits of early Chapel are obvious, and however the recital of the daily prayers of the Church may have degenerated into a mere mechanical routine, the propriety of commencing the day's work in the house of God is undeniable. There are few who will not, after a participation in a religious service, turn to their studies with more determination and industry. Nor are practical and material advantages absent. To take the lowest ground, attendance at eight o'clock Chapel insures early rising, and thus commencement of the day's reading at the proper time. Work, we have said before, should never begin later than ten o'clock; if a man has attended Chapel he will find no difficulty

Morning.

Chapel.

Advantages of.

in this hour, whereas if he does not rise till nine o'clock or later, he will hardly be ready for his reading before eleven. Again, it is well known that heads of Colleges and tutors feel more confidence and interest in a man who presents himself regularly, than in one who attends only by fits and starts. The goodwill of tutors is a valuable acquisition, and all means, of which this is a chief one, should be taken to obtain it. Thus, from every point of view, attendance is desirable.

Breakfast-party. After Chapel will be seen that species of hospitality which is peculiar to University life—a breakfast-party. At Oxford it is the almost invariable custom of the senior men to invite the freshmen to breakfast, and this repast also furnishes an opportunity for entertaining other friends at what is, under favourable circumstances, the most pleasant of meals. By this we do not understand those congregations of eating-men which are called training breakfasts, where every one is in a state of war with his neighbour, struggling to procure with the greatest eagerness the half-cooked viands which are supposed to give strength and muscle to the athlete. Than such meals there is nothing more uncomfortable or disgusting, while there is nothing more luxuriously sociable than a small and well-appointed breakfast for six or eight congenial spirits. A pleasant breakfast is the proper antecedent of a pleasant day. After breakfast comes the inevitable pipe or cigar, and the perusal

Reading. and discussion of the daily papers. Then follows, if the man be wise, three solid hours of good hard reading. This amount may easily be secured if breakfast is begun, as it usually is, at 8.45. The study is, of course, liable to be broken into by

lectures, especially in the first terms of a man's career; and the opportunity thus given of leaving his books will tempt him to direct his steps further than the lecture-room, to call on some friend, or saunter down "the High," and turn into some inviting shop. But such temptations must be resisted, and he should return to his rooms immediately after lecture, and resume his reading. He will certainly find his pleasures enhanced by the satisfaction felt at having done a good morning's work. Generally no one reads much beyond one, nor is it wise to attempt to pass that hour, and place too much strain upon the brain. Luncheon at Oxford is not so sociable a meal as breakfast, nor is it so luxurious and plentiful. In fact we shall be within the limits of truth when we say that a very large number of men confine themselves to bread, with cheese or butter, and beer, a sufficiently frugal meal. The especial period for heavy luncheons is in the Summer Term, when the presence of fair cousins or sisters is the cause of such merrymaking. But, unless a friend drops in, the meal is a simple one; certainly the boating-man cannot allow himself a large luncheon, with two or three glasses of sherry. If he does he will unpleasantly feel the consequences in the utter loss of his wind before he has pulled many strokes. Nor must he be late at the river, for the "coaching" usually commences at 2.15 or 2.30, and the walk from the Colleges to the barges is work for fifteen minutes.

Lectures.

Luncheon.

Boating, advantages and disadvantages of.

The question whether a man shall row or not, depends of course upon his inclination and physcial ability. There are many who refuse to undergo the labour and discomfort which are necessary to

qualify a man for his "Torpid" or "eight." Certainly boating as practised at Oxford is not an unmixed pleasure, and the necessity of sitting quietly in *deshabillé* beneath a steady rain or fall of snow tends naturally to diminish the enthusiasm of a novice. Moreover, the operation which most must submit to, and which is technically termed "coaching," involves the duty of bearing patiently the lusty and liberal abuse which the "coach" often pours forth upon the unfortunate freshman, whose active anxiety to satisfy his stern monitor is generally rewarded by a concussion with his oar, and the undignified backward motion which is called "catching a crab." But in spite of these preliminary inconveniences, rowing is a noble exercise, and exerts a healthy influence upon every part of the bodily frame. In the case of constitutional weakness, no man should be persuaded to row. The great exertion and intense strain which is necessary in a race must tell with grave effect upon a weak heart or diseased lungs, and though such effect may not be visible at the time, it will often show itself in after years. Upon a sound constitution rowing will not work any harm, nor is it necessary to place reliance in the highly coloured stories which are circulated concerning the harmful results of this exercise. It has been shown by elaborate statistics that men who have rowed in the "'Varsity" or in their College eight have not as a rule fallen short of "three score years and ten," nor are they troubled with the numerous complaints which rowing is vulgarly believed to induce. A delicate man should by all means avoid an exertion for which he is unfitted, but one conscious of no such incapacity should for several reasons un-

"Coaching."

Rowing, a healthy exercise for sound men.

dergo the usual coaching. To be able to row will always prove a most useful accomplishment, while the exercise is both pleasant and healthy. It is almost a necessary element in a University education, and, from a regard for the credit of his College, no one should refuse to place himself in a position by which he may be able to sustain her fame upon the river. For though Oxford is primarily and properly an intellectual resort, it is no secret that the position of a College upon the river and in the cricket-field is the index to its popularity. Generally the first question the average man asks with regard to his future College is, "How high is it on the river?" If a College can combine intellectual and physical superiority its popularity will be unbounded; if this cannot be, the coarser excellence will, we fear, be found to predominate over the other. At Oxford the most general topic of conversation, and the one of which some men never tire, is the river. Even the metaphors of daily life are borrowed from the phraseology of the boats, and a man is asked to "bucket" over his dinner, or to "get forward" with his reading. The genuine boating man is undoubtedly a nuisance. No sooner does the conversation change to a more interesting subject, than he quickly turns to his cherished topic, which he urges and urges *usque ad nauseam*. Boating (as hunting) seems to exert a marvellous influence over the minds of its devotees, which blinds them to the fact that there may be those to whom it does not present such charms, and whose interest in the narration of its merits is often but the enforced politeness of a bored listener.

An accomplishment always useful.

Popularity of Boating.

The "rowing man."

The progress the freshman at first makes in the

Rowing Education.

art of rowing is slow, and the work imposed is very hard, but soon his labours are rewarded not only by the eulogiums of his coach, but by the facility of which he himself is conscious. It is remarkable how suddenly this improvement comes, and though the man may not yet have attained to good "form," he will no longer find himself gasping for breath, or his wrists giving way from pain after the first twenty strokes. "Form" is of course most difficult to acquire, and in most cases fair strength and weight, with moderate "form," will insure a place in the College Boat.

Torpids and Eights.

The "coaching" generally lasts during the October Term, and in the Lent Term the "Torpid" or Junior Eight is taken in hand, and the most promising of the freshmen are drafted in. The Torpids are rowed at the end of this Term, and any vacant places in the Eights, which are rowed in the Summer Term, are filled up from those who have best acquitted themselves in the earlier races. The Torpid races last six days, the Eights two days longer. In these races the boats do not row abreast, but start in a long line, at a distance from each other of twenty yards. Their relative positions are defined by the order in which they were left at the close of the last races. The boats are now so numerous that the races are rowed in two divisions; for formerly, in such a long line, the head boat was not far distant from the winning-post, and the disparity of distance to be traversed by it and the lower boats was of course very great.

There is naturally some difference between the two crafts, and the Eightsmen are more finished in style, and capable of rowing a faster stroke, than those who have a place in the Torpids. The

latter boats are without sliding seats, while the Eights are narrower, lighter, more outrigged, and canvas-covered. A distinctive ribbon is usually reserved for the Eightsmen, whose position is, next to a place in the "'Varsity," the most coveted honour.

Besides the Eights and Torpids there are also "Fours," "Pairs," and "Sculls" races. Each College too has its own "Scratch Fours," and usually in the Summer Term its "regatta." Thus no incentive of enthusiasm is absent.

The art of rowing, as of boat-building, has now reached such a pitch, that further ascent seems impossible. A fine oarsman moves like a beautiful machine; to every part of his body is assigned its proper work, while to assist his motions every appliance of art is called into requisition. The object of the boat-builder is to fashion a craft which shall be as narrow and light as possible, and which shall combine the proper amount of stability with the least resistance to the water. In fact a "skiff," or light sculling boat, is so narrow and flimsy, that the seat with difficulty receives the sculler, who is obliged to keep both blades of his sculls on the water to preserve his balance. If he happens to raise either blade, the result is immersion. The light Eights are of similar construction, and their appearance, as they rock about with every wavelet, is such as to raise the liveliest apprehension in the spectator. However, no disastrous accident has as yet occurred, and the actual danger is really infinitesimal. Moreover, there are always ready, with punts, University watermen, to rescue unfortunate undergraduates. But no one should trust himself in a boat or canoe unless he is able

Necessity of learning to swim.

to swim. There have been several fatal accidents of late years, which have resulted in the death also of a companion, who in attempting to save his friend, has been himself lost. There is generally no excuse for inability to swim, for it is an art easily learnt, and for which at Oxford there is no lack of opportunity or instruction.

Reading and rowing not inconsistent, except, in some degree, in the Summer Term.

The reading man who is fortunate enough to have the offer of a place in one of the boats, will often, from the adoption of a new system, find serious difficulty in arranging his work. In fact, he will ask the question, whether he is justified in rowing at all, for the extra time which is spent upon his training must of course be deducted from his working hours. In several ways he will feel this interference. He will be obliged to retire for the night at an early hour, and the entertainments given by many men to the crew will form a distraction. In the summer the heavy meal in the middle of the day, with the strong ale, will preclude possibility of working in the afternoon. Then comes the practice, and then a large supper, after which one will do well to get even an hour's reading. The student then must be prepared to lose some time, but this, if he possesses a little moral courage, need not be a great amount. In training for the Torpids especially, it is easily possible to make up five or six hours a day. In the Summer Term he may rise early, and so get in an hour or more; but he must not expect to combine hard reading and rowing. Indeed, among all classes of men, idle and industrious alike, the Summer Term is allowed to be more a period for amusement and enjoyment than for severe study. It has been shown how boating is liable to break

up reading, and the same disadvantage is joined to cricket. For one of a College eleven there will usually be two, and often three, matches a week. He will be obliged to leave at one o'clock in the "drag" for the grounds, which are distant nearly two miles, and he will probably not be back in College till seven o'clock. After this is supper, and then usually very little reading. So that, in this term especially, is the devotion of the whole morning to study needful. Even in the morning there will be many distractions. Idle friends will enter and assert that to read upon a beautiful day is sinful and unnatural. Frequent invitations to the participation of claret-cup will arrive; or the student will take his Aristotle or Hallam, and attempt to read beneath a cedar in the gardens, where he will be seized upon at once by a group of merry idlers, and forced to declare his opinion of the "Derby favourite," or to estimate the chances of Jones being in the "'Varsity" eleven. He must thus map out his day with great skill if he intends to work four or five hours, and must determine to compensate for the time wasted now by extra study in the "long."

The Summer Term a period for pleasure.

All will acknowledge that the Summer Term, two short months, is the most pleasant of all terms, perhaps, indeed, the most enjoyable epoch of a lifetime. During the greater portion of it there are perpetual opportunities for amusement. Rowing, cricket, lawn-tennis, croquet, archery, garden parties, flower shows, should furnish interest to the most languid. What can be more charming than to float lazily down the Cherwell, shaded from the sun by the overspreading trees, or listlessly to saunter beneath elms and beeches in the fine old

gardens? If more active amusements are sought, one may run with the eight along the river path, or "pull" down to Sandford to fish, or bathe in the "lasher." These pleasures, which may seem trivial and ordinary, are to Oxford men invested with a larger interest by reason of their *locale*. All the incidents of every-day life are beautified and refined by the associations of the grand old place. In the Summer Term an undergraduate lives in an atmosphere of poetry and romance. The sombre, crumbling walls are relieved and enlivened by green foliage and gay flowers, the summer sun imparts to all hearts a generous glow. And at the crowning scene of all, when the old buildings re-echo with the sweet laughter of fair women, when old friends meet again, when all forget their troubles and throw themselves eagerly into the unceasing pleasures and revelry of this time: surely now the happiness of sanguine youth is in its zenith, this for after-years must be brightest, most joyful, memory.

Such, then, is the Summer Term, and such its distractions and occupations, in the latter of which, it is to be feared, reading does not occupy a prominent place. However, a man with a fairly strong will may combine intellectual with physical or social pleasures; though we should recommend him to decline to row in the term in which his schools occur, for then he will not be able to spare much time from his work.

After-rowing occupations.

Taking up the thread of our remarks whence we digressed, we pass on to the remainder of the afternoon. In the Winter Terms "coaching" usually takes up from one and a half to two hours; and a man will at all events find himself

back in his rooms by five o'clock. This will leave him an hour before dinner, which he may spend in many ways ;—in reading, at the Union, in shopping, or at billiards. A prudent man will adopt the first plan, and make sure of one hour while he is able, for his time after "Hall" can never be called his own. If he spends his time in sauntering from shop to shop, here purchasing one trifle and here another, not asking or thinking of their price, he will be astonished at their amount when the tradesman sends in his bill, with a request for payment of "this small account." Again, billiards is a remarkably fascinating game, and its votaries at Oxford are naturally numerous. There is often heard an outcry against this game as the parent of vice and sin, but this is usually founded on ignorance or prejudice. No doubt some have been hastened on their downward course by a love for billiards, but these number only an infinitesimal proportion of the whole body of players. Those who abuse this and such-like games generally confuse the game and the player. The truth is that the hurtfulness of this or that game depends entirely upon the latter : an ordinary healthy-minded young man is seldom ruined by such pursuits, and as seldom will all the lectures in the world keep a man of a low and depraved mind from carrying out his designs. At Oxford most of the billiard tables are private, and even at the public ones University men always attempt to exclude "outsiders." Thus the company of low swindlers is avoided. It is said that billiards foster a love for drink. This is certainly not so at Oxford ; and rarely will any liquor be seen in a private room. But while we do not believe in the assertion that

Shopping.

Billiards not immoral, but expensive.

billiards tend to ruin the morals, we freely allow that the game does empty the purse. The charge at Oxford is 2*s.* an hour, a somewhat exorbitant sum ; and where a man plays every day at billiards or "pool," his expenses and losings easily amount to 1*l.* a week, 8*l.* a term, 24*l.* a year. Thus only a slight calculation is needed to point out the way in which money disappears ; and the same method may be advantageously applied to other expenses.

Oxford shops and tradesmen.

The shops of Oxford are, as is well known, a great feature of the place. All that is needed to make life comfortable, every contrivance of luxury, every beautiful product of science and art, quickly finds its way to a town where customers are neither few nor considerate of expense. Several of the Oxford shops may compare with the most elaborate establishments of London, nor suffer by the comparison. Tailors especially abound, and excel in skill ; and a man, if only he can afford it, has but to leave himself in the hands of his Oxford "artist," and he may appear with impunity in Hyde Park or at the "Rag."

Oxford tradesmen have, of course, a world-wide reputation for exorbitancy of charges, and the character is only too accurate. An undergraduate must then expect to find himself charged 20 per cent. more for an article here than he would pay in any other town.* But the tradesmen may set up in their defence the plea of "bad debts." There are men who leave Oxford, owing four or five hundred pounds, whose faces, after their exit, are no more visible, for they betake themselves to some foreign

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* Even at Cambridge, a University town, the charges are said to be *comparatively* moderate.

clime. Thus, in self-defence (as they say), Oxford tradesmen are obliged to recoup themselves from the pockets of those who will pay, and the innocent suffer for the guilty; which plan, however unfair to the majority, can scarcely be decried as unnatural.

The Union, advantages of.

In place of these modes of killing time, an undergraduate may spend his hour at the Union, or at one of the School Clubs. These latter have been established for the benefit of those men who prefer the companionship of their old schoolfellows to the more mixed society of the Union. Of course the accommodation here is neither so extensive nor so convenient (though less unpleasantly crowded) as at the Union, and many men are members of both. The Union is a kind of large literary club, where every opportunity is afforded to those desirous of improving their minds. Apart from the debates, which are naturally a very important feature, every facility is afforded for universal reading. There are six or seven large rooms apportioned to different branches of literature, ephemeral or otherwise. In one room are the daily papers, in another the weekly periodicals, in another the various magazines. There is a large library where every work likely to assist the studies, or amuse the leisure hours of students, may be found, unless dishonest members have appropriated these volumes to their own use. There is, too, a writing-room, where paper, envelopes, &c., are supplied, and letters gratuitously stamped. It is a natural result that this room should be generally crowded by undergraduates, whose eager desire is to equal their subscription by the value of stamps consumed. For membership of the Union there is required, from fresh-

men an entrance-fee of 1*l.*, which entitles to all the privileges of membership except voting. The Second Term they are proposed, seconded, and usually elected. The subscription is 1*l.* 5*s.* a term, and after nine payments (including the entrance-fee) a man becomes a life member with no further payments, except a voluntary terminal charge of 3*s.* 6*d.* for stamps. There are coffee and smoking rooms, where cigars and cigarettes are provided at a fixed price, and where coffee is supplied on the production of tickets which may be procured of the Steward for 2*d.* each. The chief officers of the Union are the President and Treasurer, who are elected every Term. For these offices there is always a brisk competition, and much excitement is aroused among the favourers of rival candidates. It is thus evident that the Union presents many advantages, and, apart from the debating element, pleasantly supplies a want which would otherwise be severely felt.*

Dinner. From a description of these various means of amusement we are carried to speak of "Hall," as dinner at Oxford is universally called. The time is usually six o'clock, but at Christ Church dinner is an hour later. Whether this arrangement is convenient, depends upon the student's ability to read after a full meal. To those unable to do so, the change is a boon, for it allows them an extra hour before the brain is clouded. Systems of dinner vary at different Colleges. In most, dinner consists of "commons," that is to say, a list is handed

Systems of "Hall."

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* At some Colleges Junior Common Rooms have been established, and these offer some advantages of the Union and the Wine Club.

round containing the names of the dishes for the day, choice is made, the order is taken to the kitchen, and a plate, or "commons," of the given commodity is brought up. This system has no doubt its advantages, but in two ways it is somewhat objectionable. A man is entirely dependent upon the cook for the style of the dinner, and for his particular allowance; and, secondly, a "commons" is often such a huge plateful that one is disgusted at the amount and general appearance of the food. Apart from this, the meal is plentiful and of good quality, and a fair dinner (meat, pudding, cheese, beer, &c.) may be obtained at most Colleges for an average of 2*s.* 9*d.* In some cases the undergraduate is charged according to the amount he consumes, in others there is a fixed charge for dinner.

No wine is, as a general rule, permitted; but at Magdalen, men are "sconced"* in sherry; and when "sconces" have sufficiently accumulated, the table has wine at dinner. At some tables soda-water is allowed. There is usually one day in the week, called "Strangers' day," when a better dinner is served, to which men invite their out-College friends.

It may be said on the whole that dinners at Oxford are very fair, and that the charges are moderate. In some cases it is possible to raise the expenses much higher, as when the men are divided into batches of ten or twelve, who appropriate a table, and choose an "arbiter edendi" for the week, to settle the *menu* for his term of office.

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* A "sconce" is a fine imposed upon a man for talking "shop," or behaving himself otherwise unfittingly at "Hall."

Thus they can regulate their expenses as they please, while they are not so dependent upon the cook, and can always insure a good dinner.

After-dinner occupations.

The manner in which he spends his after-dinner hours will be a fair index to a man's character, and consequently we shall find here the most marked differences.

Some relaxation necessary.

We have said that to begin reading immediately after dinner is not only useless but harmful; and we shall find that most men act upon the excellent and convenient rule of spending an hour at all events after Hall in some lighter occupation. What this occupation is to be depends very much upon the man's purse, and the number and nature of his

The Union.

friends. If his exchequer be very limited, or his friends few, he will retire to the privacy of his own rooms and regale himself on tea, or walk to the Union to smoke and drink coffee. At several Colleges a set of men join to play pool every evening for an hour; and College debates and meetings

"Wines."

not seldom occur. A large proportion of men indulge in those convivial meetings which are called "wines;" and an undergraduate with a fairly large circle of acquaintances will generally find his engagements to such entertainments amount on an

Solitary pleasures.

average certainly to two a week. Others, if they have no such engagements, will always spend an hour in quiet contemplation over a glass of wine in their own rooms, and will refuse to stir until they feel in that state of comfort which is the proper and orthodox post-prandial condition. Many men lay down for themselves a rule to which they rigidly adhere: a certain hour for work is fixed, a certain quantity of wine imbibed, and, the moment the hour strikes, all frivolity is thrown aside, and

reading claims their undivided attention for two hours, when they are ready to embark in any scheme of amusement proposed. Such a system has great and undeniable advantages, but it is one which it will be found extremely difficult to observe without exception, so many are the distractions of Oxford life. A reading undergraduate usually numbers among his friends one or two idle men, whose sole business in life is to find amusement at the expense of their neighbours. Such inveterate triflers will be found a great hindrance to steady reading. They invade the rooms of their more industrious friends at all hours, seasonable or unseasonable, refuse to receive a hint that their presence is unnecessary, and if a more open remonstrance be uttered, pour every kind of abuse upon the head of the unfortunate student, and do not hesitate to apply to him that most opprobrious of all terms—"smug." These men wander from room to room in search of rest, and often succeed in spoiling a whole evening's work, or in forcing their friend to read, for compensation, far into the morning.

Idle men.

It is impossible to imagine the many calls which a man has upon his time after dinner. There are always some men who play cards or billiards every night, and who gladly welcome a pleasant companion; and if a man finds himself in such a set, escape will be difficult, and reading next to impossible. At some Colleges a large College "wine" is given several times a Term, to which all undergraduates are invited. It may well be imagined that any study after such an entertainment will be of a dubious character. In most Colleges, too, there is a wine club, which holds its meetings once a week. These clubs comprise a dozen or more of

Other amusements.

Wine Clubs.

the best known and most sociable men of the College, and the "wines" are given on some specified day when a dinner better than usual is provided. To this a man invites his out-College friends, and takes them to the "wine" which is held in the rooms of the members alternately at the expense of the club. Thus the necessity of giving a "wine" oneself is avoided, and this extremely pleasant and sociable arrangement is the means of bringing together a large number of men who have never met before; and an advance is thus made beyond the common limit of College society by introducing new men and new ideas. After an hour or so, an adjournment is usually made to "pool," and thence to cards. Thus another evening is lost to work. There are often literary institutions, Shakspeare or Sheridan clubs, which meet once a week: in fact, there is every opportunity for spending time, both pleasantly and profitably, at the expense of reading. For it must be remembered that though many of the meetings we have mentioned do not last long, an unsettled feeling is often caused by them, and one is easily led to embark in some other scheme of enjoyment at their close.

"Wine," description of a.

We have several times spoken of "wines," and it now remains to give some short description of them. There are probably few who have not heard or read of these jovial meetings, for often has the art of the novelist given us a picture of their pleasant features, of the bowls of punch that are emptied, the old port which disappears, the stale jokes that are cracked, the old stories renewed, and the old "chaff" reserved. But even a Thackeray's skill cannot make us participate in the intense enjoyment, the sanguine spirit of healthy youth which,

careless of the future, revels in the present, finds in every little circumstance some opportunity for pleasure, and sees in every hackneyed witticism and ancient story the manifestation of a genius which merits the most hearty plaudits. And then the songs that are sung! How eagerly they dash to the chorus, and leave the unfortunate performer high and dry in the middle of his verse! How vociferously they applaud the stuttering utterances of the timid orator, and fill the voids caused by his barrenness of words with hearty demonstrations of their attachment to him as "a jolly good fellow," thrice repeated! How confidential they become; how generous in the hospiality they offer to all!

Smoking, use and abuse of.

The scene is usually clouded by the tobacco smoke which is evolved from many cigars; and to those who do not smoke the atmosphere is unpleasantly suffocating. For this reason it will always be found a prudent step to acquire not the habit, but the ability to smoke. Two small cigarettes will often prevent those nauseous sensations which are felt by a non-smoker, and will hardly be sufficient to bring upon a man the abuse which is so often lavished upon the votaries of tobacco. That great excess of smoking is to be found at Oxford, none will deny. There are many who can scarcely ever be seen without a pipe, and whose every action is accompanied by the fumes of tobacco. They consequently seldom enjoy a good appetite, often are subject to complaints which are not unjustly ascribed to their indiscretion, and do not experience that full and perfect enjoyment of the "weed" which is the happy lot of those who use it with wise moderation. Sparing use of tobacco not only does no injury to health, but is

an encouragement to, and provocative of, tranquillity and cheerfulness of mind. With many men it materially assists digestion, and a pipe after hard study is an admirable sedative. Like heaven's other gifts, it needs only to be wisely used to become a blessing.

Such are the amusements of undergraduates; and a pleasant contrast is a "wine" to the hard work of past days. The lives of some men are of course entirely passed in such occupations. At Oxford, as elsewhere, there are those who abuse the good gifts of fortune, and gain to themselves the name of "fast men," "roués," or "rakes." Than these there are no more despicable creatures in existence. But there are many men who are perhaps called "fast," but who do not really come within our category. They combine with high animal spirits and love of pleasure a carelessness of their interests or a passion for show, which may be follies, but are not crimes. Beneath a "fast" exterior they conceal a kind and generous spirit, and a mind which is often disgusted with the wearisome frivolities of their daily life. These men in after years, with the acquisition of experience, settle down into excellent husbands, and worthy and exemplary parish priests. But this is not so with those who are in our thoughts, and whose characters must be too well known to many men. These "glory in their shame," in the reputation for loose and licentious habits which they have carefully formed and cultivated. Their highest ambition is to be known as a "sad dog," or rake; and this character they successfully by their acts sustain. Virtue is to them a folly, and delicacy of mind and manner only the offspring of priggishness or con-

"Fast" men.

Frivolous men.

Brutal men.

ceit. Nothing is too sacred for their tongues to defile: the best feelings of our nature, love of home, reverence for truth, or a belief in the honour of woman, are sentiments to be met only by scorn and derision. Their conversation is chiefly occupied by topics of betting, racing, the stage, and other kindred subjects, and is highly flavoured with every species of barbarous oath. Foul language rises to their lips naturally and with no effort. They are never conscious of a manly thought, a pure wish, or a high aspiration. And so they pass on, objects of scornful disgust to all right-minded men, a burden and a sorrow to their friends, and despised even by those who fawn upon them for their own mean ends. Such men are the bane of Oxford society, and will probably have been met at some time or other; but happily they are not numerous, nor do they exert so much influence as in "the good old days."

The Proctors.

In our remarks on University morals we must not omit mention of the Proctors, who are the guardians of that morality. The Proctorial system is naturally the object of much abuse, but its fundamental conception is surely perfectly sound. It is absurd to suppose that young men, if left entirely to themselves, will always preserve that decorum of manner and soberness of habit which should distinguish the students of a great University. In the multitudinous opportunities for excessive pleasure and indulgence, a youth of high spirits will frequently lose himself, and can only be kept straight by a strong hand. The Proctors cannot of course be cognisant of every unfitting action which is perpetrated within the University, but it is certain that many are kept from wrong

The Proctorial System a useful and necessary one.

by fear of the punishments which these officers are able to inflict. It is as absurd to say that morality would be as strict in their absence as in their presence, as it would be to say that the housebreaker and pickpocket would pursue their avocations with less industry if the strong arm of the law were not ever threatening them. But while cheerfully acknowledging the undoubted benefits of the system, we must acknowledge that in its smaller details it is open to criticism. It may be a necessary regulation (some say), but it is an irksome, and seems a foolish one, to oblige young men to appear as masqueraders in a College Cap and a strip of raiment dignified by the name of "gown" in the public thoroughfares before 1 P.M. and after dark. To these critics it is an unsolved question, what particular virtue is embodied in this garb, or why a stroll down the "High" in a "Pot" hat should involve more wickedness than the same in academicals. Surely men of two or three and twenty should not be forced to wear an antiquated dress, or obey an absurd regulation which was perhaps suited to the mediæval times, but which is now an anachronism and an absurdity. Such a rule should be placed in the same category as that which forbids the undergraduates to carry bombarding implements, or to enter a tobacconist's shop. This is a view widely held, to which we assign neither praise nor blame.

Smaller details open to criticism.

The Proctors are in their sphere quite autocratic, and they have the power, if they find a man wrongdoing, of instantly sending him down for the remainder of the Term, for one or more Terms, or utterly and for ever. In the evening they generally begin their peregrinations about 7.30, and con-

The Proctors autocratic.

tinue till 11, when they stop all men without cap and gown, requesting the delinquent to call on them the next morning. At this interview the usual fine of 5*s.* is exacted. In the morning the Proctors have not a definite system of waylaying men, and only make any chance victims they may meet in passing from one College to another. They often search the billiard rooms after 9 P.M., and any undergraduate found there is fined 10*s.* The Proctors are also supposed to take notice of smoking in the streets, and driving dogcarts or pony-traps, but these misdemeanours do not seem to come equally within their cognisance. The two Proctors are assisted by four Pro-Proctors, and are served by some officers named "the bull-dogs," objects of special abhorrence to undergraduates.

Their duties and occupations.

The duties of a Proctor are neither light nor pleasant, and to a man of delicate mind it must be a great trial to be obliged to secretly follow the steps of some unfortunate student, and to stealthily spy out the haunts of a suspected undergraduate. It is but natural that the office and those who hold it should be the objects of much opprobrium, but to call either useless is surely to shut the eyes to plain facts. As long as human nature remains the same, so long will a curb be needed for vicious youth.

We have made the foregoing remarks upon the morality of Oxford, because we consider it would not be just to throw a strong light upon all the good points of an Oxford career, and to obscure the bad ones. Parents may not wish to believe that, in sending their sons to Oxford, they expose them to temptations; but to be forewarned is to be forearmed, nor will parents have a right to

The morality of Oxford not perfect, nor utterly bad.

reproach with misrepresentation the eulogists of a University education if their sons are led into paths of the existence of which they had been ignorant. But we have no desire to take a pessimist view of Oxford society. There is certainly that amount of doubtful morality which is natural in a place where two thousand young men are gathered together, a large number of whom have good health, liberal allowances, and little to do; but when we take into account the manifold temptations ever present, we are forced to acknowledge that the general moral tone is good. Those who have passed through their career with no loss of their purity are to be congratulated on their good fortune or their merits, while those who have yielded to temptation may reasonably hope that their infirmity is but the offspring of rash and inexperienced youth.

A "cloistered virtue" unmanly.

To conclude this digression: though we do not believe in the propriety of that adage which tells a young man to "sow his wild oats;" and though we question utterly the efficacy of a vicious training as a preliminary to the office of the pastor or the lawyer, we do most assuredly hold that an acquaintance with men of different tastes and habits is an essential of education. If a man grows up from boyhood to manhood, enveloped in the thick cloud of his own self-conceit, with a priggish contempt for the weakness and follies of others (the result of utter ignorance of their causes or conditions), he will probably experience in after-life some great fall, some utter uprooting of his moral system, which he might have guarded against if he had not felt so secure in his virtue, or had

possessed some slight experience of the mistakes and temptations to which most human beings are liable. If he does not meet with such a catastrophe as this, a stunted sympathy, a narrow mind, and an unnatural moral pride, will certainly be his unpleasant characteristics. Let him not place himself above the frailties of human nature, and condemn those whose head is weaker, but whose heart is better than his own. The man who has met temptation, and conquered it, is a better student of human nature than he who flees at its approach, or proudly stands aloof from the weaknesses of his fellows.

The Evening.

To resume the account of an undergraduate's evening. From the hours of 9 till 10.30 we suppose that most men will be found reading. Some will begin an hour earlier, or study an hour later, but the generality of men wisely attempt to devote an hour or two hours to intellectual pursuits. At the close of their reading they will adjourn to a neighbour's rooms to finish the evening with the accustomed pipe and "grog." There are, as has been said, several days on which no reading after Hall will be accomplished. If, after a "wine," a man is able to get through a fair amount of work, he may consider himself fortunate, and may be congratulated on the possession of a remarkably strong head. Generally he will drift with the rest to some rooms where cards require less intense application, or, if the gates be not closed for the night, will pay a visit to some out-College friend. With regard to the first-mentioned amusement, there is no doubt that this fascinating game, if it be a daily amusement,

Cards.

in whatever form it be played—whist, loo, "van,"* or "Nap."—is apt to consume more time and money than is advisable for a prudent man. Some certainly are able to rise from a card-table at a stated hour to resume their reading, but we fear there are few whose interest in the game will not inveigle them into remaining to the prejudice of their work. However, a moderate participation in the pleasures of whist (or the round games) will not greatly disturb reading, nor have a particularly bad effect upon the moral nature. Many men arrange to postpone play until ten o'clock, when the proper amount of work has been done, and this plan, if practicable, should be generally adopted. With regard to the second point, we do not think that cards, as played among ordinary Oxford men, will arouse that gambling spirit which is latent in many; the stakes are not sufficiently high, nor is the play sufficiently frequent. Even if this spirit were roused, we do not think it would find enough scope for its activity to do much harm; and it is a remarkable fact that, though games of chance are naturally popular among undergraduates, there is a great absence of that sordid gambling fever which so often characterises the meetings of men of maturer years. There are, of course, some men who wish to gain for themselves the title of "fast," among whom whist at guinea points, or "unlimited loo," are favourite occupations, but with the average undergraduate cards neither tend to immorality nor to the ruin of reading.

Little real gambling.

Risks of out-College peregrinations.

If a man is often out of College in the evening

* Vingt-et-un.

he will labour under several disadvantages. His Tutors will not unnaturally conclude that his absence from College is not connected with reading, and that therefore his time is wasted. Again, in his nocturnal peregrinations he is very liable to meet the Proctor, and thereby incur a fine if he is without his cap and gown; while, by re-entering College any time after 9 P.M., he must pay a fine ranging from 1*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*, according to the hour he "knocks in." If he enters after twelve o'clock, or if at that hour more than once a week, he is likely to be summoned to an interview with the Dean, or the head of the College, and to receive from him a severe lecture, with sometimes the more substantial punishment of being "gated"—that is, confined to College within certain hours. To persist in wrongdoing will always be found useless and inexpedient, whatever be the pleasure derived from tormenting those set in authority. The heads of a College exert a despotic power, which they will not suffer to be trifled with. They possess the most potent means of insuring obedience to commands by their power of rustication. If a man, after several warnings, is still contumacious, they may remove his name from the "Buttery" list, by which means he is unable to procure food in College, unless his friends take it out for him in their own names, as they sometimes do for several days. If he does not now submit, they may send him down for the rest of the Term, the next Term, or entirely close his career at College. Of course the latter punishments are only reserved for the more flagrant offences of lighting a bonfire in "quad.," screwing up a Tutor's "oak," or behaviour of similar extravagance. How-

The Heads of a College powerful, and to be treated with respect.

Expulsion. ever, failure to pass the ordinary examinations in reasonable time will generally cause a removal of the name from the College books. Different rules hold good at different Colleges; but in most cases if a man has not passed his "Smalls" by the end of the Second Term, or his "Mods" by the end of the Eighth Term of residence, he is politely re-

Migration elsewhere. quested to remove himself elsewhere. Such unfortunate men usually migrate to a Hall or to the Unattached, where they manage to drag on a comfortable existence; for, while their old friends are not lost, their little escapades do not meet with such harsh reproofs as in their former place of residence. Indeed there are many men who choose a Hall or the Unattached in preference to a College for these reasons, though the system adopted at the first-mentioned abodes is more rigorous than in former days.

Various additional amusements. We have thus given a brief description of the manner in which an ordinary undergraduate may pass his day at Oxford. Of course this method may be varied in many points. Instead of spending his afternoon on the river he may walk, play fives, racquets and tennis, ride, or drive. These two latter amusements are naturally very expensive, and by a man of limited income should be

Horses. eschewed. If a man keeps a horse at Oxford, his expenses will probably be nearly 2*l.* a week, or 50*l.* a year; while if he hires for riding and driving to any extent, he will find that his terminal bill at the stables will come to a large amount. The charge for a hack or pony-chaise for the day (or part of the day) is 10*s.* 6*d.*; and if he indulges in this luxury three times a week he must not be astonished if his pleasure has cost him over 20*l.* a

Term. For it is not only the bare hire (or keep) of the horse which is in question; there are also numerous incidental expenses which only those experienced in such things can understand. For instance, when men take a drive they often put up at some hostelry, and indulge in a dinner which is not generally a cheap one. There are, too, many "tips" connected with this luxury, which will increase the total considerably.

Hunting.

Moreover, for a hunter the charge is two guineas a day, and it will thus be seen how bills are swelled to the astonishment and disgust of parents. Around Oxford there is fair opportunity for hunting, and several packs meet within easy distance, chief among them being the "Heythrop," to which a strong contingent of undergraduates is usually furnished.

Expenses.

The mention of expenses naturally leads us to speak of a subject which unhappily must have great interest for many men. It is impossible to give statistics upon this matter, but we shall not err greatly if we say that a large number of University men who lead a sociable life have felt the incubus of debt. Expensive or careless habits which result in debt are common among men of all ages; while such failings are, as might be expected, particularly numerous among youths who are perhaps enjoying for the first time the freedom of independent life, and have but an inadequate estimate of the value of money. It has always been held that a propensity for running into debt is a usual characteristic of the true University man, and it must be allowed that there is some foundation for this opinion.

Extravagance.

Necessity of keeping within allowance.

Most men must have found it very difficult to avoid exceeding their allowances; and there are

many to whom such transgression implies not only present inconvenience but future trouble. It is almost useless to repeat here the well-worn admonition, that it is safer to keep out of debt altogether. When once the barrier set up by prudence has been passed, the great safeguard against debt is lost, and the descent to discomfort and perhaps ruin is easy. A man who owes no more than he can properly pay, will strive to keep his expenses within bounds, but when once these expenses exceed his allowance, he will no longer be so careful in small matters. His argument will be like that of the man who sins against his health, he will say—"This little can't make any difference; I may as well owe 30*l.* as 20*l.*" It is not difficult to see that this course, persisted in for a year or two, will land him, if not in insolvency, at least in wretchedness. The more he owes, the more reckless probably he becomes, his life is made miserable, his friends wretched, and all the pleasures of existence are soured by the weight of his burden. He is afraid to enter a shop, in dread of the demands of his creditor; he avoids the "High" or the "Corn," lest he may meet some importunate tradesman. Every step upon the stairs makes his heart sink, he "sports his oak" continually, pleads illness or feigns absence. He is reduced to every ignoble shift to stave off the evil day, and grovels before his creditors with prayers for patience. Ominous-looking correspondence crowds his table, and the sight of every letter awakens in his mind unpleasant thoughts. During his first year or two, his tradesmen may have been lenient to him, nor even have sent in their bills. But the state of his affairs must become known, and creditors naturally

Small beginnings.

Misery of debt.

grow suspicious when money is not forthcoming. A polite request for settlement is followed by a threat, which in its turn is fulfilled by a despatch from a Proctor in the Vice-Chancellor's Court, demanding payment within a week. If this be not complied with, the man is "put in the Court," and, if the bill be allowed, of course he is ordered to pay. Debts are not legally recoverable if contracted by a minor; but at Oxford the Vice-Chancellor usually judges the necessity of a certain item, and decides accordingly. Thus one pair of trousers might be considered a necessary expense, four pairs in a Term an unnecessary one, which would be disallowed. And so with other things. Sometimes, however, the Vice-Chancellor will inquire into a man's position before giving a decision. For example, an expensive gold chain may be a perfectly justifiable item for a man with a large allowance, which it would certainly not be for one with small means. Thus it might be allowed in the first, but disallowed in the second, case. These exceptions only apply to minors; men over age are, of course, responsible for everything. But even if a man is "put in the Court," and his bill is disallowed, does he gain anything by it? Nothing; for his credit and reputation are ruined. The heads of his College become acquainted with the facts, and the undergraduate, if not sent down, receives a severe reprimand, and loses his character. For this the small triumph gained over a tradesman is but a sorry recompense.

The "Court."

The evils of debt are innumerable. By his expensive habits a man may not only cripple the means of his parents, but is very likely to ruin his own prospects in after-life. An undergraduate

The evils of debt.

Inexpediency. who leaves Oxford, owing a large amount, will seldom find any profession or calling open to him, which will furnish an income sufficient to pay his debts, and to maintain the position of a gentleman. Years will elapse before he is free; and who can tell the misery of those years? He will be unable to take advantage of an opportunity which would be open to an unincumbered man, and will probably have a hard struggle to make both ends meet; whereas, without this burden, he Immorality. might have lived in comfort, if not in luxury. But we may adopt a higher tone, and condemn debt from the standpoint of morality. Men do not remember that to order anything for which they have no chance of paying properly, is a distinctly dishonest action, and is nothing more nor less than obtaining goods on false pretences. Surely it should not be considered a manly characteristic to run into unnecessary extravagances, and to incur years of misery for oneself and one's friends for the sake of a popularity which is idle and fleeting.

Extravagant men at Oxford may be divided into two classes: those whose extravagance is the result of carelessness and an easy-going disposition, and, secondly, those who run into debt voluntarily, Extravagance generally the result of thoughtlessness and inexperience, seldom of premeditation. deliberately, and with malice aforethought. The former are the more numerous, and must be well known to most men. They have no idea of the value of money, and consider it far beneath them to calculate the expense of a given object. They have a grand and majestic manner of waiving all discussion as to the cost of a suit of clothes, and never deign to ask the price of a picture or a book. They fling about their silver to servants and hangers-on, and always pay double the proper

amount to a cabman or a boatman. A glove the least faded, or a coat the least worn, is to be at once thrown aside, and bestowed on the scout. They will order with easy magnificence, as an afternoon's amusement, several pairs of trousers, or two or three hats. If they have a fit of economy, they will eschew "Hall" with its 3*s.* dinner, and dine at an inn, where they will probably pay 5*s.* They are pathetically astonished when their allowance runs out, and are virtuously indignant when their bills are sent in. Who can tell their motives? Is it to please themselves, or to excel others and win popularity? Or is it not rather a combination of the two? However this may be, the above are their unfailing characteristics, and they must soon have a rude but salutary awakening from their pleasant dreams. The second class is happily not so numerous. A man who, deliberately, and with his eyes open, plunges into extravagance for mere selfish gratification, who will not be deterred by the threatened ruin of his parents or his own certain downfall, can ask for no pardon. His faults are not those of a high-spirited, kindly, careless youth, but the despicable plans of a schemer, who sacrifices to his own pleasures all that should be dear to him. But for an undergraduate of the former class, however mischievous his frailties, may be pleaded the manifold temptations of an Oxford life; and the little expenses, which, perhaps, form his largest item, can only be appreciated by those who have passed through the ordeal. If such a one learns a lesson from his errors here, and is taught not to look upon money as mere dross to be thrown away, his Oxford career will not have acquired a perfect

Wisdom learnt.

justification, but will not have proved entirely useless.

Cliques the ruin of a College.

Those who have had any experience of Oxford life must have noticed with astonishment the system which prevails at many Colleges, of splitting up the men into cliques more or less small. It is, of course, only natural that there should be men who, continually meeting, should in course of time form a set. Undergraduates have naturally special friends, with whom they will generally prefer to associate; and as a man grows "senior," especially will he turn to his particular friends, and derive more enjoyment from their society than among men whose conversation bears on topics which have become somewhat tedious to him. It is not, however, necessary on that account to withdraw themselves wholly from the society of others, and to form an exclusive coterie. If a precedent for such action is once created, others will be likely to take the same course, and after some time the whole College will be separated into various small knots of men without any tastes or interests in common, and, to all outward seeming, utter strangers. It is easy to see how ruinous such a state of things must be. A College is thus a house divided against itself; there is no accord between the several sets; each has in view only its own interests or comforts, and, amid the jealousies and bickerings of the sectaries, the common weal is entirely hidden. Whenever a College office becomes vacant, each clique puts forward a candidate, and a large amount of ill-feeling is naturally engendered. The officers thus lose that public support which is their due, and which is indispensable for the proper conduct of affairs. Men refuse to row, and will not trouble

themselves about cricket; do not call upon, or entertain the freshmen; each prefers to go his own way, and leaves everything else to take care of itself. Then the College Eight is filled up with "unfit" men, the Eleven is never settled, College meetings are sparsely attended, and the natural result follows: the Eight goes down, the Eleven loses its matches, and the College its popularity. The various sets accuse each other with being the cause of this calamity, barely deign to nod as they meet in the "quad," and take every opportunity of abusing their neighbours. The longer they remain, the more confirmed they become in their exclusive habits, and often they leave College without being on speaking terms with a quarter of the members.

The picture we have drawn is not, with reference to some Colleges, an exaggerated one, and the disastrous result described has always followed. Other Colleges, with far more prudence and public spirit, tacitly set up a rule that all the undergraduates shall know each other, and, to further this general acquaintance, encourage public hospitality as much as possible. Large College breakfasts and "wines" are given by the men in turn, and each undergraduate is thus in a manner forced to make the acquaintance of his neighbour. College matters, too, are not decided by the arbitrary will of one or two prominent men, but are laid before the whole College, whose opinion is required. Everything is thus carried on in the light, and although the necessary union of friends is not prevented, it is not allowed to degenerate into a selfish cliquism, which will prove the temporary ruin of the College.

A walk down the "High."

It is perhaps in walking down the "High" about one o'clock in the day that we see with the greatest distinctness the most varied phases of University life. As we saunter along this splendid street, unrivalled, some say, by any in Europe, passing noble edifices dedicated to religion and learning, we shall note the curious contrast caused by the juxtaposition of the learned and vulgar elements, and may appreciate the wonderful medley of men who represent Oxford society.

The various elements of Oxford life.

Here will be seen one man rushing home from a lecture to his luncheon, his arm full of books, his academicals flying in the wind, and his head crammed full of the newest conceits concerning Virgil or Plato. There are two *dilettanti*, sauntering gracefully arm in arm, followed by a pair of pugs or spaniels of the purest breed. Their clothes are cut excellently well; everything about them is quiet, and in good taste, inviting, not compelling, attention. They themselves peer through eye-glasses at the newest picture in this window, or the prettiest trifle in that, and eye with easy condescension all who meet them. Following them comes a freshman, uncomfortably prim, with cap and gown in spotless condition, and evidently proud of his elegant attire. He has been invited to lunch with an old schoolfellow, and, not wishing to transgress the rules of the University, has donned the official garb. As he passes along, he enters a tailor's, orders a hat, and gives the name of his College with great unction, firmly insisting upon immediate payment in accordance with his resolution of avoiding debt. Alas! glance at his account two years later in the same tradesman's ledger!

Next come three fast men, in coats and trousers

of enormous and alarming patterns, with all about them of the newest and most advanced style. They have spent the last hour in the stables where their horses are kept, and have been regaling themselves with beer and choice stories. As they "swagger" along, they leer and wink at every female who passes them, and are greeted with loud shouts from noisy friends in the window opposite, whence too comes the "*tootle-tootle*" of a post-horn, blown by some undergraduate who considers this amusement to be the height of wit. Behind them race half a dozen boating men bound for a big lunch, to which, with its slang of the barge and the water, they look forward after a hard morning's reading.

From this shop creeps slowly a man with downcast head, who has tried his best to soothe the impatience of a large creditor, but without success. From this shop steps lightly forth one, with happy face, who has succeeded in convincing a credulous tradesman of the certain demise of an ambiguous aunt, to whose wealth he is left heir.

There now passes by the "smug," the ideal "smug," that personage whom all outside folk long to see, and having seen, shudder. His lanky, unkempt hair is covered by a hat on which is gathered the dust of ages, and from which, as from his other garments, all symmetry has long departed. His coat is buttonless, his shirt and collar proclaim him one of the "great unwashed," and his trousers by no means fall in graceful ease to his boots, for they scarcely reach farther than his knees—to use an expressive phrase, they are "half-mast high." He grasps in his hand an umbrella which "Mrs. Gamp" might have been proud to possess. His face is entirely innocent of adornment, with the exception

of that shaggy tuft which hangs from his chin, and which has, from its association, gained the name of "smug beard." As he paces uneasily down the "High," it is not hard to see that he is out of his element. If, perchance, he catch a glimpse of a neighbour or fellow-Collegian, he flees down a back street to his cold, comfortless rooms, whence he will only emerge to take a solitary constitutional on the Summerton Road, or to pay a hurried visit to the Union.

Here, rapidly passing, are grey-haired "dons" with happy, pleasant, port-wine features, and here young tutors proudly conscious of their new position, intent upon impossible reforms, or revolving sharp witticisms for common-room conversation. There are the velvet sleeves of the Proctor, who stalks majestically along; and there tradesmen who have been vainly making calls by appointment upon wary undergraduates.

As we notice these various types of character, these elements, which are always changing, and ever remain similar, we may gain some superficial notion of the life which Oxford lives—of that strange incongruous mixture which fills her muster-roll.

General tone of society.

We do not suppose that the description given in the foregoing pages of the ordinary pursuits of an undergraduate, will contain much to shock the sternest censor of society. Indeed, many will allow that such a life is harmless and respectable; while most will go further, and assert that it is likely to endow a man with not a few social virtues. That the latter verdict is the true one will be fully shown hereafter: it only now remains to touch lightly upon the general characteristics

and tone of Oxford society, and to leave the unprejudiced to form their own decision.

There will be noticed running through the whole of the social life of Oxford two opposing currents, both of which may be called the aristocratic; the one in the original sense of the term, the other in its ordinary and derived signification. That is to say, the reverence with which men regard wealth or station is liable to be counteracted by the admiration they entertain for the aristocracy of moral or intellectual excellence. It is natural that a University which is composed largely of men of that middle class which is always ready to pay its tribute to good birth or great wealth, should look with favour upon the representatives of the higher classes of society. Nor is it less natural that young men, whose generous feelings are not yet hardened by contact with the world, should court the friendship of one who may have social qualifications without being heir to an earldom, or should speak with genuine enthusiasm of a man, poor in worldly wealth, but rich in intellectual resources. And these two tendencies, the one to measure excellence by position, the other to regard a higher standard, may always be noticed. It is to be feared that the tendency to worship social rank will in Oxford, as elsewhere, generally prevail. Oxford men are but human, and it is natural that the substantial advantages of wealth should gain attention, if not popularity. But it must not be supposed that undergraduates are, to use a vulgar phrase, "tufthunters;" this would be far from the truth. They certainly will not tolerate presumption in a nobleman, or boorishness in a man of large means. There is no society which

Undergraduates not "tufthunters."

exacts in a greater degree the attributes of a gentleman from its favourites, or which is more determined in excluding "uppishness" and vulgarity from its pale. Often the most popular men in the University are undergraduates of moderate means; and a man has only to be well-mannered, sociably pleasant, and intellectually passable, to find himself welcomed in the best society of Oxford.

Conceit and vulgarity disallowed.

Narrow conceit undergraduates will not suffer; and there is no place where a man is more likely to find his own level. Those who come up with an unbounded belief in themselves, and their own powers and virtues, quickly find others intolerant of pretentious affection, refusing to submit to dictation from one not better or more clever than themselves. They are treated with open ridicule, or (what is more galling) with half-expressed or silent contempt. Soon they become conscious of their own mediocrity, and careful not to give offence by an undue assumption of superior wisdom. Thus Oxford is particularly a school of manners, and there are few who enter and leave without some accession of urbanity, manliness, and toleration.

Conclusion.

Such then is Oxford life; a mixture of frivolity and serious labour, pleasures and sorrows, hopes and disappointments. That it contains bad elements, none will deny; but it is certain that the good points more than counterbalance the evil ones. Oxford society may bear the criticisms of the prejudiced, for it is founded upon human nature, which always assigns to the young some levity, some recklessness, but much more of noble ambition, generous feelings, and kindly actions.

CHAPTER V.

THE INTELLECTUAL LIFE.

THE world of Oxford is of so diversified a character, its elements are so varied, and those elements are so constantly changing, that to speak of the intellectual side of its life with perfect accuracy is an impossible task. We shall, therefore, confine ourselves to an examination of the intellectual tone of Oxford society, and to some remarks on the chief influences exerted upon it by those within and without the pale of the University.

At the present day, it is a common accusation of culture that it is superficial in the extreme, and that its votaries do but skim the books to an intelligent acquaintance with which they lay claim; while their arrogance is sufficiently shown in the pretence they put forward of a complete grasp of subjects, the mere outlines or preface of which have cost the greatest philosophers a lifetime of labour and thought.

Culture.

Now, since contemporary thought is naturally reflected in the University, where every system has its disciples, and every freak in art and literature its zealous defenders, the reproach to which we have alluded will fall upon Oxford society in a similar manner. It is no part of our work to defend culture—"the knowledge of all that is best in thought and literature"—in its general aspects; its merits and advantages should be apparent to every refined mind. But we may re-

Apology for classical study.

mark that the outcry raised against it is scarcely founded upon a careful consideration of the facts, more especially with regard to its classical side. If we consider those who are, or have been most distinguished in the higher walks of life, especially in politics and literature, we shall find that a very large proportion owe, in a great measure, their success to the study of those classics whose advantages are so vehemently denied. Most of them will gladly admit such a debt, and those who will not would find it difficult to account for the position they hold, if they do not refer it to that system of education towards which they have shown such ingratitude. If the results of classical learning are not so apparent on the outside, the inward working, the subtle influence on mind and manners, to an observant eye are easily recognisable. The mental refinement, which is the almost universal result of a wide acquaintance with the splendid achievements of Greek and Roman genius, the intense sympathy with everything high and noble which is generated by the study of the glowing eloquence of the great philosophers and orators of old, are surely no valueless gifts. If some have abused their opportunities by assuming an intellectual arrogance, or an exclusive contempt for other means of education, these should not be allowed to overshadow the main body of quiet, unassuming labourers in the same field. If some have devoted their whole life to a study which has brought no profit to themselves, or have thereby lost opportunities of conferring benefits upon their fellow-men, there are others who can combine an appreciation of the ancient authors with a study of their modern successors, and are able to ap-

An Oxford education not an exclusive one.

proach the consideration of modern social problems the more successfully for their acquaintance with ancient philosophy. And it is this dual study which Oxford encourages; she does not separate the present from the past, but in all her work she requires the one to be explained by the other. To this substantial advantage may be added another. For the proper discussion of the problems to be solved, careful application and regular industry are necessary. The mind, forced to dwell on questions of the greatest subtlety, naturally becomes not only refined, but flexible, and adapts itself with ease to difficulties, which could only bewilder an inexperienced man. No doubt such facility may be acquired by any other study requiring concentrated attention, but not in an equal degree, nor conjoined with similar advantages.

A man who, conscientiously, diligently, and intelligently, has passed through the Oxford classical course, will have mounted several steps in the ladder of intellectual perfection, and have provided himself with no mean aid for any profession or calling he may adopt. He is well furnished and equipped from the armoury of philosophy and political science, and has mastered and made his own the thoughts of the greatest writers on things intellectual. Whoever will glance at the examination papers of the final schools must notice the wide reading necessary. Physical and metaphysical philosophy, morality, logic, politics, economy, history, religion, philology, mythology, are subjects to be studied again and again, accurately digested, and set forth with a facile pen, and in a manner which will show the

The Classics no mean aid to an intellectual career.

knowledge acquired to be the result of intelligent study, not of hasty "cramming." It is, as we have said, the fashion to depreciate the Oxford classical schools, to call the work useless, and the scholars puffed up with vain conceits. Those who really appreciate true culture will reply that by such training knowledge is increased, the sympathies are widened, and a mental tone given, which a man, if careful, may preserve throughout life. It can surely not be denied that those whose work it will be to deal with social and political problems, will begin their task the better for having examined the conditions of the solution of such in the history of the ancient nations; there they will find many of those questions which are baffling modern legislators met and overcome.

Perfection of the Classics.

The man of letters may view with admiration the monuments which the genius of Plato, Demosthenes, and Cicero has left to posterity; the orator may read with pleasure and benefit the models of all eloquence; the student of war may follow with delight the campaigns of the most consummate strategists of all ages; the poet may turn to works which have never been surpassed; the historian to authors, whose writings, now more than two thousand years old, are yet the choicest products of the historic muse. These, read where the very atmosphere is classical, where every stone and tower speak of an antiquity which is perennial, of a learning which will survive the inventions of this modern age, as it has survived the struggles of a thousand years—must these not invigorate the mind and chasten the spirit, and render the whole man fitter and abler to meet and conquer

those trials and temptations which must necessarily beset him.

Variety of intellectual life.

After this defence of the most characteristic form of Oxford education, we may proceed to discuss the intellectual life itself. As has been said, Oxford society is of a most varied nature, and there are few men who will not meet with companions of a kindred and sympathetic spirit. Every opinion has its expositors. Republicanism takes up its abode next to a rigid Conservatism; the rationalist meets every day the strenuous upholder of orthodoxy; the lover of antiquity is the near neighbour of the disciple of modern thought. Even if a close and mutually profitable friendship with men of taste and culture be not formed, and the student's time be passed with companions unendowed with love for higher pleasures, the society of great men as found in their works may be sought, and their words will always raise him above the level of his daily life. But such a fate should be in store for few, and most men will be able to find associates whose opinions are in accordance with their own. In speaking of men of intellectual tastes, allusion is not made to that class to whom the expressive but opprobrious name of "smug" has been attached—men who spend the greater portion of their life in poring over their books, until mental and bodily powers are deadened together, who carefully eschew the society of their fellows, and rigidly refuse to acknowledge the utility of manly sports; and so drag on a dreary, wretched existence, the scorn of their neighbours, martyrs to a false system, and only half enjoying the pleasure of knowledge, because they refuse to participate in what is the

"Smugs" not true disciples of culture.

proper antecedent to all culture, a healthy experience of and sympathy with their fellow-men. Those to whom we point do not place themselves above frail human nature; they acknowledge its faults, and take delight in its pleasures in a rational and consistent manner, by which a greater zest is added to those studies and intellectual pursuits which claim the quiet portion of their existence. Thus the more keen will be their enjoyment of virtue's fruits, the more beneficial the influence exerted by the wisdom of their teachers, and the better prepared will they be eventually to play their part on the world's stage.

The intellectual extravagance of youth natural nor really harmful.

In a society composed almost entirely of young men we shall naturally find the adoption of the most advanced and extravagant doctrines. The ardour and the enthusiasm of youth are not generally compatible with grave and sober principles. The growth of a young man's mind is so rapid, he passes from one idea to another with such ease, that systems are to him only matters of a day, the destruction of solemn dogmas but the work of a few hours' study. The mind has not yet attained its proper equilibrium; the experience is meagre and scanty; high-sounding phrases and extravagant professions quickly inspire him with the ardent zeal of a neophyte, zeal only to last till another creed appears, to be adopted as hastily, and as hastily rejected. Thus he travels on, tripping lightly over systems, using them merely as planks or stepping-stones to pass the stream which divides him from knowledge; and this once crossed, he may look back and view with astonishment the flimsy means by which his course was assisted, and shudder to think how

nearly his feet had slipped from their treacherous supports; while from the firm bank and vantage-ground of wise experience he sees others less prudent, perhaps less fortunate, meeting with a fate that might have been his, and lost in the chaos of doubt and infidelity.

That this has been the history of many will surely not be denied, nor certainly is it cause for shame, for the way is Nature's. To a period of enthusiastic confidence there must come a re-action, and sound views then adopted will be held all the more firmly and consistently for the inexperienced rashness of youthful days. Young men will never put aside their eagerness for novelties, and content themselves with the sober realities of life, nor is it advisable that they should do so. Each period of existence has its proper sphere of intellectual activity, and if it be with-drawn from that sphere, the result will be not only unbeneficial, but will stunt and injure mental growth.

These remarks apply not only to questions of religion and morality, but also to politics and literature; in fact, to every branch of thought where first principles may be matters of discussion. The freshman will probably hear with wonder and amazement opinions the most extravagant, and views the most at variance with ordinary experience, made the subjects of approving remarks. From bewilderment he may pass to acquiescence, and from acquiescence to enthusiastic persuasion. Of course such opinions will not be found prevalent in every College, or among all classes of thinking men. In a society so large a man will find upholders of the most varied views, and may

The widening of a man's mental view.

make his choice accordingly. But it seems undeniable that one of the great advantages of an Oxford education is the continual contact with men of different character and opinions, the never-ceasing flow of new ideas, or the reclothing of old ones in a new form. The mind is not allowed selfishly to dwell upon one idea, but is led to consider and fathom all. And this is so not only with regard to the various examinations (more especially "Literæ Humaniores"), but also in general conversation, and in the discussion of current topics. It may be objected that by the entrance of such new impressions into his mind his faith may become unsettled, and his piety destroyed. If this be so, and from such fear he close his ears to all that contradicts his creed or may shake his firmness, then faith is empty, and firmness but a name. Belief is never so strong as when it is conscious of obstacles, and certainly can never be intelligent without experience of counter-arguments and the means for their refutation.

It is for Oxford that we claim such a catholic appreciation of all that is best in thought and literature. Many of the most influential writers of the day have, or have had, their abode here, and their association generally brings with it a more careful attention to their thoughts. And this brings us to speak of the tutors, their influence, and their claims.

The Tutors and undergraduates.

No doubt one of the great alterations that have taken place in Oxford life is in the character of the tutors. In many ways they must ever remain the same or similar, but the last twenty years have, and probably the next twenty years will

have, effected important changes in the system. There must always be a wide gulf between tutors and undergraduates, which can never wholly be bridged over either by the condescension of the one or the willingness to receive favours by the latter. A man, when he has once gained a Fellowship and taken his seat at the "high table," must always feel in a degree elevated above his former companions. He will consider that it is now his duty to eschew frivolous amusements and the society of unintellectual companions. His time must now be devoted to the solution of the immense problems of philosophy or theology, which only need the application of his mind to disappear for ever. His ear, once attuned to sounds of revelry and discord, is pained at the least infraction of harmony. He becomes gradually inspired with the peculiar notions of those with whom he consorts, and learns to consider all below the rank of B.A. as belonging to the class "feræ naturæ." The jokes and freaks which once amused him as an undergraduate now fill him with a holy horror, nor will he admit a witticism whose point does not turn upon some subtle question of antiquity. In short, he becomes "donnish," pompous, and priggish. This history of the genesis of the "don" is in many cases not overstrained, and will sufficiently account for the dislike with which he is viewed by undergraduates. But, fortunately, many tutors are beginning to see how much their influence for good may be increased by mixing with the students on sociable terms, and by throwing off that assumption of lofty superiority which is harmful and ridiculous. Tutors now often ask those undergraduates with whom they

The youthful "don."

Increasing popularity of the Tutors.

have specially to do to breakfast or wine, and endeavour to cultivate a more friendly feeling by at all events assuming an interest in the pleasures and sports with which the younger race of men is chiefly concerned. But the benefits which might result from this are neutralised, unless the undergraduates are ready on their part to meet the advances of their tutors. The great advantages a man may derive from the friendship of the "dons" are evident. This favour, once gained, may be easily preserved; for tutors only require as a condition a fair attention to College rules, a moderate amount of reading, and some slight respect shown to themselves, requirements which are neither irksome nor useless. Naturally a tutor will not trouble himself about the success of an unruly or idle undergraduate, while, if he sees that his advice and assistance are appreciated, he will be proportionately encouraged and flattered. Those outside the University cannot understand how greatly the favour or disfavour of the "dons" may affect the happiness of a man's life. For an after career their assistance may be invaluable, and at College there are numberless small privileges which a tutor has the power to grant or refuse, and where refusal often means great discomfort.

Advantages of their friendship.

But we may take a higher ground than this, and assert that an *entente cordiale* between tutor and undergraduate will be the means of advancing a man in his intellectual career. Oxford "dons" are the depositaries of so much traditional lore, and from their position learn so much of the higher life of the University, that their friendship cannot fail to be very beneficial. In most cases they are

men of uncommon mental powers, and to their original knowledge have added a mass of information collected in their more recent studies. Their minds are formed ; they can now regard questions with more soberness and wisdom than of old, and they are thus able to correct the errors, and moderate the enthusiasm of younger students. If the "dons" are very unpopular, it is often because men will not treat them with even ordinary civility. Some undergraduates consider that they are fair sport and proper objects for every practical joke and insolent experiment. It is quite natural that under such treatment the "dons'" tempers should become soured, and that they should look with suspicion and dislike upon all undergraduates. These feelings they inculcate on the younger Fellows, and leave behind them a *régime* founded on terror, and assuming as its first principle the utter depravity of the undergraduate race. Such a system of government quickly proves the ruin of a College, and men will remedy this if they treat those in authority with proper respect, and endeavour to please them in small matters, feeling assured that the ultimate benefits they will derive will more than counterbalance the transitory discomfort which an observance of ordinary regulations and customs may inflict.

Proper civility to be shown to the "dons."

In Oxford the life of England is reflected. All national questions, every agitation, every utterance of public opinion finds its echo here. The Union is a mimic Parliament, and its debates are conducted in a manner strictly modelled after those of the House of Commons ; while every question which agitates the latter causes a corresponding, generally a more lively, emotion in the younger

Oxford the reflection of England.

The Union debates.

House. Such an institution is of course of incalculable value, and the opportunity offered by the debates is not to be ignored by those whose ambition it is to sit in the National Assembly. The practice which is necessary to fit a speaker for public life is here provided in a congenial sphere, among men of similar age and training. The most fluent speaker is often wanting in self-confidence, in tact, or in a readiness of repartee ; and these gifts, though usually founded on some natural qualifications, may at all events be improved by the constant opportunities allowed for their display. The audience is generally so large, and often so fastidious, that a self-possession of no ordinary kind is required, and this is in most cases the fruit of perseverance. It is for this reason that the College Debating Clubs are of less value. The audience is comparatively small, and composed perhaps largely of personal friends, who are not disposed to be over-critical ; while one feels some little hesitation in propounding startling theories, or displaying powers of eloquence, before men whom one is accustomed to meet at every period of the day. These Clubs are no doubt useful for a first attempt, but higher flights of rhetoric should be carried to a larger and more appreciative audience. At the Union, though the oratory is sometimes mere verbiage, and the arguments somewhat confused, the results are very good, considering the age and inexperience of the speakers, and the fact that probably no higher authority is sought for the subject matter than the leading article of some daily paper. There is certainly no better training in England for those who wish to gain fluency and a ready

knack of speaking—whether they intend to pass to the Senate, the Church, or the Bar.

Political opinions.

With regard to the politics of young Oxford, it is probable that if the undergraduates were polled, there would result a substantial Conservative majority. The greater portion of men who hold Liberal or Conservative opinions, have in most cases given these subjects no thought. Some who come up to Oxford with an ulterior ambition for public life, have had the political principles of their family carefully instilled into them, and these views they generally retain throughout their career. There are, secondly, and these constitute the majority, men who simply follow the prevalent political fashion of their set. The members of these two classes may belong indifferently to either party. A large number of undergraduates always contemplate taking orders, and from them radical notions may scarcely be expected. Of those who make politics a special study it is difficult to speak with accurate impartiality. If the Conservatives are in a majority, it must not be supposed that the Liberals form a small and unimportant body. Probably within the ranks of the latter will be found the men of the greatest ability: certainly among them politics receive the most careful attention, and in such questions interest chiefly centres. There have been established several political clubs to promote the well-being of either party, among which the most important are, on the Conservative side, the "Canning," and for the Liberals the "Palmerston."

Conservatives and Liberals.

It is natural that the chief influence exerted over those undergraduates who lay claim to the title of

"thinkers" should be derived from the works of the modern writers on matters intellectual. The importance of John Stuart Mill as a teacher will be noticed elsewhere, and we shall remark on the increasing popularity of another philosophical system, Hegelianism. There has never been wanting among Oxford men some one central figure round whom they may congregate, whose sayings they receive with reverence, and whose doctrines they endeavour to propagate. Among such teachers the one whose authority has been most powerful in modern days is certainly Mill. His various works, more especially his "Logic," have been tacitly adopted as text-books for many years, and though now there seems a likelihood of revolt against his system, a close study of his writings is necessary both for success in the Schools, and to appreciate those doctrines of which, if not the founder, he was at least the most powerful exponent. The scope of his teaching is so wide, his treatment of vexed questions so decided and yet so impartial, his style so correct and clear, sometimes indeed rising to a noble eloquence, that we cannot wonder at the reverence and even affection with which his name is held by a large class not only of young, but also of old and experienced men. Even those who seek to demolish his philosophy in a degree borrow their weapons from his works, and those who most sneer at his influence often owe their scanty knowledge of philosophy to a study of the doctrines they abuse. We do not mean to assert that his system is free from grave errors, or that its merits will make it immortal: it is enough that his works have given the greatest impetus to sound logical and philosophical study, and have

Influences exerted over men.

Mill.

proved the most powerful agents in destroying a profitless metaphysical method. His writings are eminently suggestive; he who would appreciate Mill's works must "think," as a primary condition, and if acquiescence do not follow, dissent will at least be rational and intelligent. To have achieved such results ought to prove sufficiently the usefulness of his system, and at all events accounts for its extensive and powerful influence.

Other Philosophers.

It is not to be supposed that the intelligence of Oxford is monopolised by Mill. There are many who disown his authority, and prefer the metaphysical subtleties of Kant or Hegel, or the all-embracing system of Comte, while the adherents of the newly expounded evolutionist philosophy of Herbert Spencer are neither few in number nor deficient in intellect. We believe, however, that while the influence exerted by these great writers over the minds of their disciples is more powerful in the individual instances, and is connected with a blinder fidelity, still their authority is not so widely spread—certainly their systems (except in the case of Comte) are not so much concerned with the practical side of social and political life.

Disciples of "Culture," and of other systems.

The various Schools of the period are all represented at Oxford. There are those who believe in Christianity as expounded by Matthew Arnold, ardent lovers of "sweetness and light," turning aside with supercilious pity from the blatant "Philistinism" of the political arena, to meditate over the rhythm of some French essayist and the general prospects of their new religion.

There are some to whom "Modern Painters" is a revelation, and the "Stones of Venice" the utterings of a demigod; others to whom Landor is greater

than Shakspeare, and Swinburne a sweeter singer than Milton. They will converse with wondrous ease on subjects they cannot appreciate, sharply criticise a book whose preface they have glanced at, and discuss with others, as ignorant as themselves, the merits of a creed or a philosophy whose outlines they have carefully prepared for the occasion. But such youthful follies may be easily condoned; they are merely the natural outcome of freedom, after constraint, of young minds flattered by the privilege of listening to criticisms on their superiors, and of studying subjects above their comprehension; they are but the wild oats sown by "intellectual *roués*," the few tares amongst the good wheat of sound knowledge.

Is the intellectual tone a healthy one?

But is this tone a healthy one?—are these subjects which are taken up, these systems which are adopted, the result of an earnest yearning for the ideal, a real search after truth? or are they merely the occupation of a leisure hour? or opinions merely interesting as novelties? Certainly we must allow that very often brilliant paradoxes have more power than sober truths. A startling novelty stated in a specious and effective manner, must always possess great attraction; for that which is contrary to ordinary experience and custom ever exerts, through some peculiar mental law, a fascinating influence over men. No matter how extravagant the system may be, how weak its foundations, if only it be stated attractively, it is certain to gain disciples, who steadfastly refuse to examine the arguments by which it is supported, or to listen to the criticism of its opponents. Such influence is particularly felt among the young students of Oxford, where there are always men ready to take

Though extravagant paradoxes must be fascinating, they are not necessarily very mischievous if held in honesty, and from a love of Truth.

up any exaggerated opinions, of which they will loudly praise the merits, merely because that, by so doing, they know they are running counter to received ideas, and shocking the prejudices of ordinary beings. The same disposition may be noticed in men the reverse of intellectual, who gladly adopt any startling innovation in dress, and who consider the reputation gained thereby extremely creditable.

Some seem to value highly the notoriety of the sceptic or the Jacobin, and to bring forward astonishing doctrines and extravagant ideas is with them a necessary qualification for a "thinker." But happily for the comfort of society, these do not represent the whole of Oxford culture. There are a large number of thoughtful men who refuse to wound the feelings of their companions by the utterance of ribald remarks, and who consider that not the least mark of a gentleman is the wish and ability to adapt his conversation to the capacity or tastes of his hearers. Foolish and extravagant though the speculations of many may be, we believe they are adopted in all honesty, and from a real longing after some firm and lasting system of belief. If some undergraduates wander from the religious paths of their ancestors, it is in search (idle though it be) of the noblest of all things, Truth ; and when they return, weary and disheartened, from their fruitless search, and anchor once more in their old haven, who will say that such enthusiasm has been in vain, if it has taught them to look at all things with a wider charity, and has lent a noble ambition to their life? They will have learnt the wisdom of the poet's words—

The extravagance of youth will result in the settled wisdom of age.

> And spake I not too truly, O my knights,
> Was I too dark a prophet when I said
> To those who went upon the Holy Quest,
> That most of them would follow wandering fires,
> Lost in the quagmire.*

They will know that he must no longer dream,

> To whom a space of land is given to plough,
> Who may not wander from the allotted field,
> Before his work be done.†

Surfeited with the fruits of many creeds, they will return to the one which only gives them rest.

> Hold thou the good : define it well :
> For fear Divine Philosophy
> Should push beyond her mark, and be
> Procuress to the Lords of Hell.‡

It cannot be said that such a tone is intellectually unhealthy ; men who really hope that they are reaching the goal of knowledge, and that they are "battling for the True, the Just," are not mere mischievous meddlers, but are honestly fighting their doubts, until they "find a stronger faith their own."

Scepticism powerful, but not increasing.

There can be no doubt that rationalism—we may say atheism—numbers many adherents, and that a denial of the Christian faith is no longer a bar to advancement or popularity. But it is not in Oxford alone that "atheism is lisped in gilded saloons ;" nor do we believe that scepticism has very materially augmented its numbers. In former days its profession was a reproach, and this fact accounts for its non-appearance, but does not prove its non-existence. Now it is not inconsistent with the highest character, nor are men any longer

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* Tennyson, "Holy Grail." † Do., do.
‡ Do. "In Memoriam."

ashamed to confess such tendencies. We do not suppose that the number will largely increase or materially diminish. There will always be philosophical systems at variance with revealed religion, and these systems must ever command many adherents. Perhaps we must even admit that the existence of scepticism is a condition of intelligent faith. As Mill says,* unless received opinions are vigorously and earnestly contested, they will be generally held in the manner of prejudices, with little comprehension or feeling of their rational grounds. At all events, to charge Oxford, as some do, with being a hotbed of intellectual immorality, is as absurd as it is untrue. Oxford is simply the reflection of the life of this or that period: she takes the current opinions and ideas, strains off from them what is vulgar or ephemeral, and stores up the residue, along with the monuments of other ages, to be the warning or encouragement of future generations.

Unfair to charge Oxford with being the home of scepticism.

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* "On Liberty," p. 95.

CHAPTER VI.

RELIGIOUS OXFORD.

AN attempt was made in the chapter on the Intellectual Life to show that though there must be a large amount of extravagant, and even sceptical, thought in a University where two thousand young men are collected together, yet that neither is the advance of scepticism so rapid, nor are rationalistic opinions held with such seriousness and tenacity, as to occasion very grave apprehension in the minds of those who regard with abhorrence any religious innovations in the direction of free-thought. It was pointed out that a young man rejoicing in the possession of unwonted license, and of an enlarged mental prospect, might easily be led into temporary extravagance; but that such extreme views are soon cast aside, to make room for the more serious convictions of a ripened and experienced intellect.

Religious principles of undergraduates professing the doctrines of the Church of England.

But it must not be supposed that free-thought (so called) is the only power in Oxford, or that rationalism has taken to itself the larger proportion of those who entertain fixed and reasoned views on such subjects. The great majority of undergraduates would profess firm attachment to the Church of England and to the faith of their fathers: if those who deny that faith seem to occupy the prominent position in public notice, it is because a few of such are men of great and deserved reputation, or that very many are apt to

inculcate their opinions with peculiar vigour and pertinacity, probably to convince their own wavering minds, and to demonstrate to their neighbours the noble field which is open to one unfettered by dogma and superstition. But though these may cry so loudly, those who stand by in silence must be allowed to possess their own share of conviction on matters spiritual. If it be asked whether Oxford society is religious, in the sense of paying strict attention to formulæ and their real spirit, and frequently participating in worship, the answer must be negative. But if by "religious" is understood simply acceptation of received opinions as members of the Church of England, then society is religious. That young men should, as a general rule, be profoundly serious, or always give that attention to religion which is its due, is not to be expected. It is when they are involved in some great perplexity or distress, that men's minds naturally turn to religion for assistance; but the lives of undergraduates are for the most part passed too lightly and carelessly to feel the want of spiritual consolation. Whether such carelessness is a grave crime, is not for us to say; at all events it is natural in a degree, and incident to this period of life.

Religious earnestness not to be wholly looked for.

But though a great proportion of undergraduates are not fully conscious of their religious duties, there is a large, and not uninfluential, class which shows, by various methods, its devotion to, and belief in, the ceremonies of worship. Among these men are representatives of every Church party, and ample opportunities are offered to all for participation in their favourite rites. Among the various places of worship in Oxford it will be

strange if an undergraduate fails to find a Church suited to his tastes. The services in the College chapels are of a more stereotyped form, and would probably fail to awaken any ardent sympathy in the mind of an advocate of extreme views. But among the Fellows and Tutors an undergraduate will generally find some one with whom he may converse on religious topics, in whose advice he may place confidence, and from whose knowledge and instruction he may derive much benefit. One of the changes which have taken place among the Tutors of Oxford has been an increased interest in the spiritual welfare of the undergraduates committed to their charge; and in place of the utter carelessness and disregard of things religious shown by the "dons" of fifty years ago, we see now a greater encouragement given to devotion, and a readiness to foster the hopes or relieve the fears of the younger members of the University. This is certainly one of the most beneficial results of the great Tractarian movement, of which, originally connected as it was with Oxford, it may be well to give a brief description.

Influence of the Tutors.

In the year 1833 there existed among many of the ablest members of the Church of England a great and increasing suspicion of the attempts made by the Liberals to reform the constitution and worship of the Church. From these feelings a movement grew up whose object was to counteract the innovating tendencies of the period, by inviting men to consider the real foundations of religion, and by insisting upon the divine nature and authority of the Church. These views, at first put forward in the celebrated "Tracts for the Times," soon gained a large body of adherents

The Tractarians, their doctrines.

among the clergy and laity, and the "Tractarians," as they were called, became an influential party in the Church. This result was partly due to the genius and piety of the authors of the movement, and partly to a natural reaction which had set in against Radical opinions and measures. The "Tractarians" numbered many of the ablest members of the University, and the names of Keble, Pusey, and Newman shortly became household words wherever Church principles were matters of any interest. The first founders of the school had inculcated doctrine rather than ceremony, spiritual religion rather than ritual: but their followers, especially among the younger clergy, naturally argued that an ornate and elaborate worship, and an unquestioning adherence to the commands of the Church and its ministers, were the proper and logical outcome of the doctrines of Apostolic Succession, Baptismal Regeneration, and the Real Presence. However sound and verifiable such tenets were, they held that to be practical and effective, to exert any influence over the masses, they must be presented in an attractive form, and appeal to the worshipper through the senses. Such is the *rationale* of the Ritualism of the present day, a system which at Oxford is widely popular, and whose interests are supported not only among the Tutors and undergraduates, but especially by the clergy of the city in their places of worship. At several of the Oxford churches the most advanced doctrines are taught, and confirmed by the most elaborate ceremonial. There is a large class of undergraduates who attend regularly and devoutly such worship, while the clergy themselves take every means of conciliating

Ritualism.

undergraduates, and are always ready to encourage the ardent and confirm the wavering. It is evident that since to very many men a University career is a preliminary to Holy Orders, such a system of religion is an important factor in an Oxford education. Those who in coming years will officiate as ministers of the Church, take with them the doctrines and views which they have learnt from the followers of the original "Tractarians," and an unbroken line of succession is maintained.

At the exactly opposite pole of the religious world stand the Evangelicals, who found their faith upon an entirely different system. The advanced views held by the "Tractarians" on Church authority and the rights and duties of the priesthood, they meet by an appeal to the Bible as the sufficient and sole rule of conduct. Ornate ceremony, Prayers for the dead, and Real Presence, they hold to be the proper attributes of Popery, and an advance towards idolatry. The Reformation, somewhat despised by the "Tractarians," they consider to have been a beneficent movement, and the cause of England's greatness: any attempt to recede from the results of that great revolution they denounce as an endeavour to ruin the Church of England, and as a distinct step towards the establishment of a mischievous and presumptuous creed. In Oxford the advocates of Evangelicalism are numerous and active, and are as fully alive as their opponents to the necessity of impressing young men in their favour. Their churches are not, perhaps, so numerous and attractive as those in which Ritualism is practised, but their ministers exert a great influence, and draw large numbers to

The Evangelicals.

their services. They promote their doctrines by holding frequent prayer-meetings and mission-gatherings, and adopt other means (such as the distribution of tracts and pamphlets) to inspire undergraduates with a hatred of idolatry, and true notions of the nature and aims of the Christian faith. The disciples of these two different creeds are almost invariably men of single-minded earnestness, and though in their desire for promoting God's glory they may at times exhibit some extravagance, no one will deny that their tender care of the poor, and their great self-denial, are worthy of all praise. Between these two systems lies a third, which, in some degree borrowing its weapons from the armoury of either, pursues a different and definite path. This is the Broad Church, Rationalistic, or Latitudinarian system.* The disciples of this system especially advocate a wide charity which shall extend to all creeds, denying salvation to no man, and attempting to extract from every quarter those elements of good which are always visible or latent. They refuse to believe in the verbal inspiration of the sacred books, or to pin their faith upon this or that text of Scripture. They endeavour to prove rather the

The Broad Church.

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* It is evident that all popular appellations of religious systems must be more or less inaccurate, and quite unable to express or define the nice shades of difference which mark the characteristics of men even of the same party. In the High Church, Low Church, and Broad Church parties there are many who, while adhering to the particular system in its general spirit, would naturally refuse to assent to the particular views of individuals. If, then (for convenience), we call a body of men "Broad Church," it would be unjust to ascribe to these the extravagances of which members of the same party are guilty. And this applies similarly to Tractarianism and Evangelicalism.

general spirit of Christianity than any one dogma, and allow a free choice of doctrine, and an unfettered exercise of the reason and judgment.

The more advanced Rationalists boldly declare their disbelief in miracles, and in the divine nature of Jesus, and openly deny the authenticity of several of the Books of the Bible. They would cultivate kindly and charitable feelings rather than exclusive pretensions, morality rather than dogmatic religion. These views they inculcate with great ability and eloquence, and it is not surprising that at Oxford they find many converts among those whose young pride finds everything an object for criticism, and refuses to be bound by the ordinary trammels of religion. Such undergraduates prefer Roll-Call to Chapel, and find fitter subjects for meditation in "Literature and Dogma," or in "Supernatural Religion," than in the Bible or in the Book of Common Prayer. They entertain a wide but somewhat contemptuous pity for the superstitious follies of their neighbours; but since the salvation of mankind does not depend upon the acceptance of a special creed, they do not attempt to make proselytes to their own opinions.

Such then is the religious life of undergraduates who profess a membership of the Church of England. It will be seen that their doctrines are not widely different from those held by members of the same parties without the University. There are, of course, many Nonconformists in Oxford, and for these, while attendance at College Chapel is not obligatory, opportunities for worship are afforded in abundance in the Chapels of the city. The Roman Catholic Church does not allow its sons to enter the University, and any converts its

Nonconformists and Roman Catholics.

priests may have made among the undergraduates are immediately removed. Within the last few years a Roman Catholic Church has been built at Oxford, and the priests are not less active and able than the ministers of other denominations. Nor have their efforts been attended with complete failure, for a year seldom passes without one or more undergraduates professing their obedience to the authority of the "True Church." These, of course, form an infinitesimal proportion of the whole body, but still their conversion is sufficient to foster the hopes of the priests, who confidently await the time when the great University shall be a seminary for those whose glory it will be to win England back to the ancient faith.

Moderate men.

As the intellectual, so the religious life is in great measure a reflection of the practice and tenets of the outside world. Thus there are a large number who refuse a distinctive party name, and prefer to proceed in the steps of their forefathers, and to hold those opinions (somewhat vague and colourless) which are confessed by the generality of their neighbours. Such undergraduates will avoid the services which advanced Churchmen frequent, and attend those where their susceptibilities are shocked in no direction, but where religion is taught and practised in a cheerful and unassuming spirit. They will probably hear with fair regularity the University Sermons, and if they eventually take orders, will carry out in their own persons that system of doctrine and ritual which recommends itself to the majority of Englishmen.

CHAPTER VII.

AN OXFORD CAREER CONSIDERED.

Justifications for an Oxford career.

AN Oxford career may be regarded from several points of view, and its usefulness judged accordingly. To some it may be an ordinary finishing touch of education; to some a necessary preliminary to a profession; to some merely a way of employing pleasantly a few idle years; to others a means of acquiring a tone not derivable from another source; while to those who appreciate its merits rightly it is the real commencement of a life of culture, an opportunity for study in a congenial home, the encouraging impetus given to a mind already travelling on the road to intellectual excellence. It is these last who are the true sons of Oxford, they who within her walls acquire that learning which it is hers only to give, who by her aid become the familiar friends of the great men of old, but who will not refuse to participate in human pleasures and manly joys, who unite in themselves the old Hellenic virtues—excellence in "music" and "gymnastic;" it is these who will look back upon their Oxford life with affectionate regard, will recall to mind with eager care every sign that tells them of their happy years among the old grey buildings, and will give to their University the credit of every success and forward step in life.

Social.

Intellectual.

The latter the proper one.

Such affection as this the ordinary man who finishes his career with just enough of reading to

carry him through his examinations, and spends his whole time in empty pleasures, with no higher thoughts or aims, can never experience. The enjoyment he finds in Oxford it is not impossible to derive from another source. The companionship of men of the same age and of congenial tastes may be realised in many places; the opportunities for amusement are fully as frequent in other large towns; social intercourse, unrestrained by trammels of etiquette, may be found in full perfection at the London hospitals; but besides, and above all this, there is that intellectual life of which we have spoken, that subtle blending of ancient and modern, by which the former loses its ruggedness, the latter its vulgarity; in fine, those means of acquiring sound knowledge which are not offered in the same way outside a University career. It is for this reason that real appreciation of Oxford is reserved only for those who determine to taste the full fruits of her culture by studying for those examinations which are her tests of merit. Certainly we do not mean to depreciate the manifold social advantages of a University career, and this will be fully discussed.

Social Life secondary.

For both the intellectual and the social life Oxford offers advantages of rare value, but she surely ranks the former above the latter. The object of her existence is the mental education of youth, though this is lost sight of by most of her sons, who consider the University merely as a congregation of young men collected for the purpose of spending three years or more in a happy and sociable manner, with good opportunities for amusement, and with, perhaps, some slight chance of picking up a little useful knowledge from living in

the vicinity of learned or clever men. Among such there are many who do an injustice to their own talents, and who lose an important assistance for their future success by refusing to read for Honours. In many cases only some slight self-denial and extra industry are needed for a creditable Class, which would redeem a man's career from the useless character, which, from an intellectual point of view, it so often bears.

It is evident that to the ordinary Pass Man Oxford in her higher aspect can hardly appeal. He may have some misty notion of her intellectual magnificence, or refer with an ignorant reverence to the great men who have been her sons; but any clear view of the proper objects and aims of her education, any conception of the true benefits she confers, it is not possible for him to possess.

Intellectual advantages immense.

Only the men who have followed those courses of study which she prescribes, can speak with appreciation of the immense assistance she has furnished to them for their future. We cannot estimate at its proper value the influence she exerts, not only for the years spent at the University, but for a lifetime. Indeed, it is especially in after-life that a man begins to perceive the great advantages he has derived from the culture and teaching which before, perhaps, he has undervalued. And as his years go on, and his physical energies lessen, he will now, if he has not done so before, give due thanks to that noble education which furnishes to the mind it formed a strength which is able to relieve the pain and overshadow the weakness caused by the decay of the bodily powers.

Even to those outside her pale Oxford carries with her name a world and wealth of meaning.

Nor is it difficult to discover the foundations of such sentiments; indeed, it would be a marvel if they did not exist. For Oxford has all the prestige conferred by an antiquity which does not refuse to soften its asperity by an admixture of modern elements, giving in return to the latter a charm which is its peculiar characteristic. To put aside the sympathy Oxford raises by her outward appearance, with her splendid buildings, her noble towers, her halls and cloisters, each with a history of its own, and in its quiet seclusion telling of the conquests of the mind: to put aside all this, Oxford has so entwined herself round the life of England, that the history of the quiet abode of learning is often the history of the country itself. In most of the struggles and trials of England, Oxford, despite her peaceful mission, has been a prominent actor. The part she has played may not always have been a wise one, but it has at least all the dignity which consciousness of right can confer. Systems and dynasties have fallen around her, and new creeds have taken the place of the old ones she cherished, but through all she has steadily pursued her vocation. She has been the loyal servant of her monarch against rebels or traitors, but the first to resist encroachments upon the rights and liberties of Englishmen. Through her sons, who have taken their place upon the world's stage as soldiers, statesmen, lawyers, or divines, she has exerted so marvellous an influence upon the outer and inner life of the country, that while she is the creation of England, she has in great measure founded and consolidated her country's greatness. If we search through the long roll of men whom England has held in honour, not the

Oxford venerable to all, and an important element in England's greatness.

least names among them all are those who owe all their fortune to Oxford's teaching. She has sent forth a constant flow, from her foundation up to the present time, of those who come to the front in every walk of life; and if her future is not worthy of her past, the fault must not be charged to her, but to that modern spirit of Vandalism which looks only for material success, and sets aside those elements of character which have most distinguished Oxford's greatest sons. These would be slow to deny that she has ever encouraged a sober industry, a widened sympathy, a great, but not excessive reverence for antiquity; in fine, every attribute which makes a man respectful of himself and useful to his country.

Social advantages numerous.

What we have said above has reference chiefly, of course, to the higher aims of a University life. But there are a large number of men who come up to Oxford with the fixed and avowed intention of eschewing honours, whose object is to gain a "tone," an acquaintance with the world, to knock about a little, and shake off some of that *gaucherie* which is so often the inseparable companion of a young man. And certainly for this end they can choose no more convenient and effective means than an Oxford career. There they will meet as daily companions other young men generally well-educated, well-mannered, and well-bred, many of whom are here for the very same purpose—to improve themselves. A high standard of intellectual excellence is not to be expected from them; their conversation is not particularly pointed, epigrammatic, or eloquent; their ideas and thoughts may not be very delicate, or their aims very lofty; they are simply fair specimens

Gain of "tone."

of honest, good-hearted, pleasure-loving young Englishmen. Usually they entertain a profound reverence for the ancient institutions of their country, and for those religious views which are their hereditary possession. Their sanguine dispositions are as yet tempered by none of the sober feelings of later years; everything to them is an opportunity for enjoyment; the present is happy, the future does not frown upon them. The few inconveniences they encounter, examinations, or duns, are an incubus easily flung aside; happy in the possession of health, of money, and of congenial companions they drain the cup of pleasure to the dregs, leave the future to take care of itself, and devote themselves to those occupations which life affords in such variety and abundance.

Pleasures of the Social Life.

> "Sapias, vina liques, et spatio brevi
> Spem longam reseces. Dum loquimur, fugerit invida
> Ætas: carpe diem, quam minimum credula postero."*

The shyness and bashfulness which mark most young men in the middle period between leaving School and entering the University or some profession, and which are generally exhibited in the presence of their elders or of ladies, are traits which, while they are the proper adjuncts of this period of life, should never be allowed to become ingrained in the character, and can only be lost by association with many and different men. And this opportunity is afforded by Oxford, where the freshman will be ever meeting men of various tastes and characters, with whom he will

A means of putting off shyness, *gaucherie*, conceit, egoism, and priggishness.

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* Horace, Odes I. xi. 6.

stand upon a footing of equality, and with whose different dispositions and bents of mind he will gain an appreciative acquaintance. In such a large circle he will learn to hold his own in the conversation which goes on around him, and to take no inferior part in the wordy war of badinage and repartee. He will insensibly put off that *mauvaise honte* of which he is so conscious, but which he finds so difficult to divorce; and will acquire a self-possession and equability which, even if they were the sole fruits, would go far to justify an Oxford training. On the other hand, to a man of an exclusive, narrow, or conceited mind, Oxford supplies a valuable corrective. The man who, lord of his own small sphere, is accustomed to consider himself mentally or physically superior to the generality of mankind, will quickly find in Oxford that all the virtues are not concentrated in his single person alone; that he may be great at a school, or second to none in a small town; but that among two thousand undergraduates his knowledge is but moderate, and held of small account, and his athletic feats are not at all above the average, and excite no rapturous applause. He who judges everything from his own narrow creed, and condemns the slightest infraction in others of his own code of morality, will find that a rigid and proud austerity is not the only excellence, and that his adoption of the office of *censor morum* is held to be an impertinence. He may learn to mistrust somewhat his own infallibility, to remit somewhat of his harsh imputation of motives, to understand that a wide and catholic charity is better than a narrow, ignorant, and conceited egoism; in fine, to remove

himself in some degree from that hateful character, a "prig."

Acquisition of manliness and worldly discretion.

Again, the virtual independence enjoyed by an Oxford student is, while certainly offering temptation, a valuable preparation for after-life. When a man sees that he has only himself to rely upon, and that in the world of Oxford he is alone, the sole arbiter of his career, he will, unless sadly deficient in wits, quickly find a way to defend himself against the loss of his opportunities, and the incursions of those who are ever ready to prey upon the unwary. And such experience is certainly one of the most important advantages of an Oxford career. At School, where everything is methodised, and definite duties are assigned for every hour of the day, nothing is left to the boy to decide for himself, save whether he shall apply himself to his work. On the other hand, at Oxford, except in the case of a few lectures and some minor regulations, the student is master of his own time, and may exercise his discretion in the choice of everything. No doubt this liberty is often abused, and especially during the first year of his career an undergraduate is unable to restrain himself while he has possession of such unwonted freedom. But he will soon see that wise use is far more profitable to himself than reckless misapplication of his good fortune, and will learn to enjoy with moderation the opportunities allowed. In every part of Oxford life he will be obliged to use this discretion, and more especially of course with regard to his expenses. It is here that he is most likely to fail, and such failure is not confined to Oxford men. Every one knows that want of method in financial matters is

Eventual and effectual discouragement of extravagance.

the characteristic of a large proportion of men, both young and old. If anything is to cure this negligence, it is surely the wisdom learnt from experience, which is offered in perfection at Oxford. Every temptation which may lead a man into extravagance is here placed before him; alluring shops, beautiful objects to tempt the eye, with insinuating tradesmen to recommend them. Moreover, there is that spirit of rivalry, that desire to equal or excel, which leads young men to travel beyond their means in the endeavour to keep up with their fellows. Where the incentives to extravagance are so many, it is only natural that extravagance should be common. And that such is the case at Oxford we must confess. Here, then, if anywhere, a man will learn the wisdom of experience. It may be said that wisdom gained thus is expensive, and scarcely worth the outlay. But we believe that, expensive though it be, it will be the means of strengthening a man's character in a wonderful degree, and of imparting that moral courage which is so necessary and so rare. If his allowance is not to be exceeded, he will soon understand that his wishes cannot all be gratified, and will be obliged to impose upon himself habits of self-denial which will be useful to him ever after.

A useful and pleasant preliminary to a business life.

It may be said that the three or four years a man spends at Oxford are so many thrown away if he intends to take up business pursuits, the details of which he might have been learning during the years passed at the University. It must be confessed that, for a purely business career, Oxford offers less advantages than for a learned profession. But it is certainly a question

whether a young man of eighteen or nineteen, fresh from a school, is fitted for a pursuit involving some knowledge of the world, and a more developed mental capacity than falls to the lot of most youths. Even if this were not so, it might be unwise to oblige a young man at once to settle down to the drudgery of business, without first allowing him to gain some social and intellectual experience. Of course we here assume that the expenses of an Oxford career are not an obstacle, and that the youth has not shown any remarkable business capabilities. Failing these two points, there is no better method of spending these intermediate years than an Oxford course. In this time he will gain much generally useful knowledge, and learn refinement and manliness. If neither time nor money are of vital importance, let him by all means enter the University, and the associations of Oxford may implant in him elements of character which the dry, selfish routine of business will never eradicate. It must be allowed that an Oxford degree does not carry the same weight as a passport to society which it did in bygone days. The University is now open to men of all ranks, and the expenses of a career are so decreased that men of the lower classes of society find little difficulty in maintaining their sons there. Many of these scarcely do credit to their University, and when an Oxford degree is seen not to be inconsistent with boorishness and vulgarity, it naturally loses somewhat of its lustre. But in spite of this, an Oxford man is generally received with cordiality in all classes of society, and the average undergraduate has in some degree reflected upon him the glory of his University.

An Oxford degree still a passport to society.

Influence exerted by Oxford over her students.

It is possible to bring forward other and potent arguments which might show the many advantages of an Oxford career, but the above may prove sufficient to convince the unprejudiced. We will only mention one more point here which will illustrate the influence the University exerts over its alumni, and the hold it retains on them even in after-life. Every one must have noticed with what warm affection Oxford is regarded by those who have enjoyed her education. There are few who do not speak of the years passed at College as the happiest period of their lives, and who would not readily live their career over again, even though the same errors and failures should be incident to it. And this feeling is not the love of mere social pleasures and amusements. There is a subtle influence which pervades the whole, undistinguishable to the outside world, and which lifts the undergraduate somewhat above the common herd ; a pride arising from the consciousness that he possesses an interest in an institution which has educated England's greatest men. Her sons so love Oxford, that they have personified her, and to them she is "alma mater," the gentle and kindly mother who guards and watches over her children. She is something more than a mere abstraction, and to her approval her sons half-unconsciously refer their actions when they ask themselves whether their life is worthy of their University. It is not an exaggeration to say that many from such thoughts have abstained from disgrace, and have been spurred on to higher and nobler aims.

Summary of intellectual and social advantages.

From every point of view then, Oxford is worthy of all praise. Intellectually, it widens the mental horizon, and gives a culture which is lasting and

marked. Nor is it without more substantial advantages. As a private tutor, barrister, schoolmaster, clergyman, or doctor, a man with an Oxford degree possesses one great element of success, and a University course is still justly regarded as the most potent means of general education which England can afford.

Its social advantages are as apparent. At the University a man, left to stand by himself, is compelled to determine his course and line of action at an early period of his life. He associates with gentlemen and men of refinement; his angular points will be rubbed off; narrowness of mind reduced, and manliness imparted. When he leaves Oxford and enters upon a more enlarged sphere of action, he will bring with him a knowledge of the value of money, and an ability to take his place, without consciousness of inferiority, side by side with his fellows, together with a self-possession and propriety of conduct which are the outcome of an intercourse, on a footing of equality, with well-bred, well-mannered men.

CHAPTER VIII.

PREPARING FOR OXFORD—READING FOR SCHOLARSHIPS.

Matriculation, standard of, raised.

THOSE whose work it has been to prepare men for Matriculation at any of the Colleges of Oxford, will readily agree with the assertion that in many cases that which seems a most elementary examination, involves a large amount of steady and even severe reading.

The average standard of work required is certainly far below that of the higher forms in a public School, and should not tax severely the capacity of a fourth-form boy.

The Colleges, while adopting a similar method of examination, vary as to the subjects required, and the degree of excellence necessary. Of late years there has been a marked decrease of laxity in admitting members. Even at the less distinguished Colleges there is far more difficulty in matriculating than was the case twenty years ago; while in several instances the examination is purposely rendered difficult to insure fair qualifications in those who are admitted. Some Colleges even insist upon all their members entering for some one Honour examination, and require satisfactory evidence that the candidate will be able eventually to obtain such Honours. The result is that those who wish to become members of such Colleges are obliged to offer higher subjects, and show a higher standard of excellence; while the intellectual attainments of the average undergraduate

have been raised. The object of Matriculation examinations is to give some assurance to the Tutors that the student will be able to pass the University examinations in due time ; and it is natural that Colleges with some regard for their reputation, which of course depends greatly upon the attainments of their members, should institute a more than formal inquiry as to the capabilities of those who wish to be enrolled upon their books.

Subjects of examination.

At those Colleges where Honours are not compulsory, the examination is of much the same nature as Responsions, and in some cases is identical. Generally it consists of one Greek and one Latin author ; Latin Composition, Greek and Latin Grammar, Arithmetic, Euclid I., II., or Algebra up to Simple Equations. Sometimes to these are added an unprepared passage, or passages for translation into English, and English Composition.

Authors. Greek.

The Greek author usually offered is Euripides, and two plays are generally chosen, the Hecuba, and Medea (or Alcestis). In some cases a more difficult author is required, such as Sophocles or Thucydides. It is hardly possible to offer any advice here. The one thing needful is an accurate translation, and we advise the student to avoid "cribs" as much as possible. The Examiners will usually detect their use by the flowery, but evidently unintelligent, translation which such a method of study encourages. The student will do well to prepare his books carefully for Matriculation, by which means he will find his Responsions work sensibly lightened.

Latin.

The Latin author is generally Virgil—Æneid I.–V., or Horace, Odes I.–III., with the Ars Poetica.

Latin Prose. The passage set for translation into Latin is usually of a simple character, and, as in Responsions, a good style is not so much needed as an accurate adherence to the ordinary rules of grammar. Those alone who have had some experience can understand the perverse obstinacy with which men cling to mistakes which can only be eradicated by incessant practice. The student then, to prepare himself for this examination, should be careful to eschew all higher flights of style until he be fairly advanced, and confine himself to a diction, simple, but not necessarily inelegant; while he should be vigilantly on his guard against common errors in accidence or syntax. To a man whose Prose is very weak we should recommend the adoption of such books as Wilkins'* or Bradley's Latin Prose Composition, which contain detached sentences illustrating various rules. These worked through with care, will prove a sufficient preparation for more advanced Prose, and connected passages of the character required. The student will do well to take Cæsar as his model.

Accuracy.

Grammar papers in, to be worked out. The Grammar Paper consists of a number of simple questions on accidence, and the ordinary rules of syntax, especially with reference to irregularities and exceptions. Short passages are sometimes given, and Greek and Latin idioms, for translation and explanation. The most obvious course is to carefully learn all the irregularities of nouns and adjectives, cases governed by prepositions, the irregular verbs, and the explanation of the ordinary constructions. A large number of idioms will be found in T. K. Arnold's Prose Books, and at the

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* "Latin Prose Exercises."

end of the greater portion of manuals of Greek and Latin Composition. A great help towards the acquisition of a large amount of grammatical knowledge will be found in working out Grammar Papers, which should be revised by some competent person. Another, but inferior, plan is to work out such papers *vivâ voce.* A large number of questions are perpetually recurring, and by the constant writing of papers not only are the words fixed in the memory, but the student becomes practised in the somewhat difficult art of answering questions.

Mathematics. On Arithmetic, Euclid, and Algebra, it is hardly possible to offer any useful hints. In Arithmetic and Algebra the only course is to carefully work up the chapters in Barnard Smith and Todhunter. If the problems are conscientiously solved, and not slurred over, we do not see how failure is possible. The questions are of an elementary character, though sometimes put in a puzzling manner; and thus it will be well for the student to accustom himself to their appearance, by working through the papers which have been set in Responsions.

Algebra.

Arithmetic.

Euclid. In Euclid we fear that the memory is brought into play to a much greater extent than the reasoning powers; and this is shown by the fact that men generally prefer Euclid to Algebra as a book of which they can make certain. If the student's mind is not equal to the strain of attempting to comprehend the train of argument, his only safe course is to learn the propositions bodily by heart. Here again the student should write out his propositions, and not be content with saying them to himself or his Tutor.

Unseen Translation. If the examination includes English composition and unseen translation, continual practice is

necessary. On unseen translation we shall speak in another chapter. To write an essay on some ordinary theme in good plain English should cause no fairly educated man much difficulty. Men are often frightened at the sight of some subject on which their composition powers are to come into play—a subject perhaps outside ordinary thought, or purposely couched in somewhat fantastic words. In despair they give up the attempt. But a more absurd state of mind cannot be imagined. Most men will find on self-examination that they are acquainted with some points bearing on the question in hand, and their vocabulary will generally furnish them with a few suitable phrases. This skeleton may be easily filled up with a little perseverance, and if such attempts be continued for some time, a knack of ready writing on most subjects will be acquired, how useful a qualification in every respect it is needless to insist upon.

English Composition.

The passage of unseen translation is generally not difficult, and the student who has had some practice will probably render fairly successfully any piece which may be set before him.

The above, then, are generally the subjects of examination. At those Colleges where Honours are compulsory, greater accuracy is insisted upon, and opportunity afforded for the display of wider knowledge. For instance, the authors are more difficult, and to be read with greater care ; the Latin prose must be more idiomatic, and the Grammar of a more advanced character. The student emulous of such honours we may refer to our remarks on " Reading for Scholarships." But to the candidate for admittance at an ordinary College, we think the method we have sketched

will, if properly followed out, prove sufficient to insure success.

In conclusion, we advise none to despair. The ways of Examiners are mysterious, and their method of selection not always "natural," but generally they will not refuse to pass any man whose papers are decently good, and whose work is a fair assurance of future success in the Schools. They will always allow for the natural nervousness and diffidence shown by a young man in his first attempt, and are able to gauge accurately a man's capabilities. On the other hand, no one should consider himself above the elementary work required. However forward he may be generally, there must always be several weak points, and these he should find out and strengthen by continual practice. Unless he does this, he must not be surprised if he be relegated to the class of the "ploughed;" which result may prove a useful corrective to his overweening confidence. Conclusion.

Reading for Scholarships.

The remarks we shall make here are for the benefit of those who spend the time between leaving School and entering the University in reading for Scholarships or Exhibitions, or who confine themselves to such special study during the last year of their School career. But the usual School curriculum is often unfitted for such study—at all events, for it many ordinary subjects must be dropped. In some cases special attention is paid to those who will be sent up for Scholarship examinations, but there is a large class who, unsuccessful in gaining the coveted prize, prepare them-

selves for Oxford by private study—while there are many who prefer the latter course. To such the following suggestions may prove useful.

Course of study.

In the first place, it will be well to name the papers which are usually set at Scholarship examinations. It must be understood that all Colleges

Subjects to be studied.

do not adopt a similar order of examination, nor can the papers themselves be in all cases accurately predicted. Generally, however, there are eight papers set—and the student should, at all events, prepare himself for that number. These are usually: (1) Latin Translations. (2) Greek Translations. (3) Latin Prose. (4) Greek Prose. (5) Latin Verse. (6) Greek Verse. (7) General Critical Paper. (8) General English Paper. In some cases an English Essay paper is set separately, and a History paper in the same way. Whatever be the method of the examination, we do not suppose the above list will be materially altered.

These then are the subjects in which the student will be examined, and we shall avoid confusion by commenting on them in the order given.

Latin and Greek translations.

With regard to the first two papers, the most careful accuracy of translation is demanded, and on this account the study of no author should be hurried. Now, as there are six or seven passages usually set in these papers, it is probable that the larger portion of them will be new to the

Accuracy and wide reading necessary.

student. He will indeed be fortunate if he has read two of them. It is thus very necessary not only to read as much Classical Literature as possible, but to acquire a facility in translating passages at sight. For this purpose practice should be almost unceasing, and it must be conscientiously careful. No dictionary should be used, nor should

any notes be referred to ; the student must depend only on himself. When a passage is set before him, the student should read it over once or twice to gain a general knowledge of its contents. There is no more fatal plan than to commence translating an unprepared piece, without first carefully reading it over. The sense and connexion of the whole must be clear, and then, and not till then, the translation may be committed to paper. Where the student is unable to see the meaning of any word or phrase, he should omit it, and not vitiate the whole by guessing at the signification, in which he will probably fail. This rule, if persevered in, will, while it considerably enlarges his vocabulary, strengthen his memory in a wonderful degree.

Hints for unseen translation.

When we advise the student to read as much as possible, this must not be understood as an encouragement to hurry or slur over his work for the sake of completing a large amount. Such a method would prove worse than useless in destroying all hopes of good scholarship. All his work must be studied with the greatest care and attention. Often sentences which appear at the first glance free from any difficulty, will be found, on a closer inspection, to contain some construction, of which the explanation is not to be shirked, and should be sought in Jelf, Madvig, or some other work of reference. The habit of using a "crib" on the occurrence of any such difficulty is most prejudicial to intelligent study. In the same way the memory will retain the meaning of a word, where the dictionary has been used in the proper way, much longer than if reference be made to a translation. Probably no man will ever give up the use of such assistance, but let him only turn to it after the difficulty has

General remarks on reading the Classics.

Conscientious study.

"Cribs." been solved, merely to confirm his own interpretation. For scholarship the only use of a "crib" is to improve style, and as there are very few translations likely to bring this advantage, their use should be as much as possible avoided.

Not only is the careful study of the work in hand necessary to the understanding of the authors themselves, but it is also indispensable if the student aspires to write good Latin Prose. We shall notice this again, and will only say here that it is quite reasonable to expect bad composition from men whose reading of the originals is unintelligent and slovenly.

Authors. There are certain books, Latin and Greek, an acquaintance with which is indispensable. Such are Virgil, Horace, Cicero, Thucydides, and the Greek dramatists. Of these it is advisable to read portions out of the most ordinary course of study—*e.g.*, the Eclogues, Epodes, and Satires of Horace,

Sophocles. and the later books of Thucydides. Of the Greek tragedians, Sophocles will best repay study. The Ajax and Electra may be read in Jebb, and the Œdipus Rex, Coloneus, and Antigone in Campbell. We believe it will be found a useful, though perhaps somewhat "cramming" plan, to carefully translate on paper as many choruses as possible of Sophocles, Æschylus, and Euripides. One of the Greek passages set is usually from one of these authors, and the advantage derived from such careful practice is very great. The student must naturally acquire a large knowledge of words and constructions in this way; and if, in so reading, he always refers to his text-book of syntax, his labour can scarcely fail to bear fruit.

Æschylus. Next in importance to Sophocles is Æschylus,

whose Agamemnon is in every way worthy of study. Euripides, though extremely interesting, is not so valuable for scholarship. If the student has read carefully the Ajax, Electra, Antigone, and Œdipus Rex of Sophocles, and the Agamemnon and Persæ of Æschylus—he may lay claim to a fair amount of knowledge. Some Thucydides he should certainly read; the two books of the Sicilian Expedition, VI. and VII., will repay perusal. Besides this he should read an oration or more of Demosthenes, the "De Coronâ" (in Holmes' edition), the "De Falsâ Legatione" (Shilleto), and the "In Midiam" (Holmes). A large amount of technical knowledge may be derived from these, which will often prove of great value in the general critical paper. A short dialogue of Plato will be useful from his purity of language—*e.g.*, the Phædo (Wagner), or Apology (Wagner). Isocrates is not widely read, but should be valuable. The Demonicus and Panegyricus have been admirably edited by Sandys.

Euripides.

Thucydides.

Demosthenes.

Plato.

Isocrates.

The above authors are very valuable for Greek Composition. If the amount of work we have mentioned is not sufficient, the student cannot do better than read some Homer or Aristophanes—*e.g.*, Odyssey, VIII.–XIII., and the Pax or Acharnians.

Additional books.

Of Latin books the choice is very embarrassing. The student must certainly read some Virgil, in Conington's edition, and some Horace (Wickham and Macleane). The Satires of Juvenal are very interesting in themselves, and a knowledge of Roman antiquities and social life may be gained from them, which may be very useful in the general paper. It is very advisable to read some Tacitus. He is a difficult author, and his peculiar style will

Virgil.

Horace.

Juvenal.

Tacitus.

afford a good exercise in scholarship. For Latin Prose too, a knowledge of this author is most

Cicero. valuable. Cicero of course must be read incessantly, in his orations, philosophical works, and epistles. Of the first, the second Philippic (Mayor), the Catiline Orations (Wilkins), the "Pro Cluentio" (Ramsay), and the "Pro Murena," are excellent examples. The "Pro Murena" especially, is most valuable for scholarship. Of the Second class we should recommend the "De Officiis" (Holden); and a few epistles may be read in Prichard and Bernard's edition. It is not possible to overstate the importance of a careful study of this author, in whom pure Latinity reaches its climax—the model of elegance and correctness.

Pliny's Letters. Pliny's letters are pleasant reading, and are also useful for Latin Prose. Prichard and Bernard have published some selections from these.

Livy. To these, if time be found, the student may add two or three books of Livy, and some Catullus.

Catullus. The first is of course useful for composition; and Catullus is now much read at Oxford. Ellis' Commentary is valuable, but probably too long for youthful students.

We think the above books, carefully read, will be sufficient for the acquisition of a very fair general acquaintance with the classical authors, with their various peculiarities of style and syntax. They will furnish, combined with the other necessary studies, work for a year and a half or two years, which is a period longer than most men have at their disposal.

Method of reading. With regard to the method of studying these authors much of course must be left to the student or his Tutor. A plan which has suited one may

not suit another, and it would be absurd to bind down a student to a method from which he derives no profit. Some have found interleaved books of great use, as they are able to concentrate here all the various information concerning their author, which is scattered about in books of reference. But this advantage is somewhat neutralised by the excellent editions of the classical authors which are now so numerous, where all information likely to prove useful has been diligently collected. In this case it will be found enough to mark those notes which seem of special importance, so that in a second perusal the eye may meet the object of its search without trouble. Men who despise such aids as these are forced to spend hours in verifying a reference, or seeking an illustration, which it would have been easy to find with a little care in the first instance. Again, it is necessary to have some acquaintance with the subject matter of the books read. It is not advisable to dip largely into history, geography, or antiquities, but without some knowledge of these an intelligent perusal of the books to be read is impossible. Before, too, a new author is taken in hand, it is advisable to seek an account of his life and works, and a general estimate of his literary position. This will be a great help in appreciating his works.

No Classic to be despised as easy.

One more piece of advice we may give—let the student never despise an author, or passage, because it appears easy. As we said, beneath the simple outside there often lurks some difficulty of construction, which, if not understood now, may prove a rock on which the student may meet shipwreck in the examination. Many men will consider

Horace (or Virgil) an easy author, simply because he is very generally read, and there are few who have not some slight acquaintance with his works. But in reality Virgil and Horace (certainly the latter) are the most difficult of Latin authors to properly understand, and not only require hard study, but a quick appreciation of points, and some poetic sensibility. The student should never knowingly postpone one author to another ; for the time now seemingly wasted will most probably hereafter appear to have been wisely spent.

Greek and Latin Composition.

II. Next in order and importance comes the Latin and Greek Composition. Of these we may safely assert that more attention should be paid to Latin Prose, though, of course, Greek Composition must not be lost sight of. Composition has always been a very important branch of classical education, it is certainly the most difficult. Too much time and labour may be, and probably have been, spent upon it ; but it is the most certain criterion of good scholarship, and can only be perfected by close and accurate study.

Greek easier than Latin Prose.

Greek Prose is not at all to be neglected, as is, unfortunately, often done. The general standard in this is not so high as in Latin, and for this reason Tutors gladly welcome any signs of uncommon accuracy and excellence. It is a common fallacy to suppose that Greek Prose is harder than Latin. In reality the latter is by far the more difficult. The explanation of this opinion is probably that in most cases Greek Composition is a subject studied very late in a school career, so that most men have had comparatively little practice ; while their vocabulary is always more limited in Greek than in Latin. Latin Prose, if studied pro-

perly, is of the greatest difficulty ; the constructions are so involved, and the subtle distinctions between words and phrases almost similar in form are so hard to fully appreciate, that to be a master in this art demands intense labour and great taste. But a respectable facility in composition may be acquired by careful and constant practice, combined with the assistance of a good Tutor. Oral instruction is most important here, and the student should not fail to avail himself of it. For his own part he must carefully note in the course of his reading all idioms and phrases, and the connexion of the clauses. A certain sign of intelligent or slovenly reading will be found in his facility or otherwise in reproducing in his composition the spirit and style of his author. The only possible way of attaining to a good style is by careful and constant study of the great authors, and though a mechanical correctness may be acquired by reading books of directions, idioms, or hints, a life-like appearance and easy rhythm will, as a result of such study, most certainly be denied. Such manuals will prove useful as sign-posts for the way, but the vehicle and motive power must be sought, where only they can be found, in the great masters of the Greek and Latin languages. The system of learning by heart, and repeating passages from Cicero and Plato, is unfortunately liable to degenerate into a mere effort of memory, and can only be made useful by careful notice of form and sound, and the demonstration of such by the Tutor. There are many excellent manuals of Latin and Greek Prose Composition, among which may be mentioned Wilkins' Manuals of Greek and Latin Prose (which contain excellent introduc-

Requisites for success.

Aids.

Careful study of the originals indispensable.

Manuals.

tions); Frost's Materials for Latin and Greek Prose; and Sargent and Dallin's Materials and Models. Keys are published to Wilkins and Frost, and to a few pieces of Sargent and Dallin; and they may be useful. But probably the student will not understand properly, or be careful enough to correct, the errors of his own exercise, and in most cases the assistance of a Tutor is indispensable. If good translations of the classics are procurable, retranslation from such passages should be second to none in usefulness. A collection of English versions suitable for retranslation is a great desideratum. With regard to other aids, Abbott's "Latin Prose through English Idiom" is likely to afford assistance in avoiding ordinary errors; and Potts' "Hints" furnish valuable advice for the formation of style.

Additional advice.

In conclusion, the student should never use an English Latin or Greek Dictionary in translating from English into Latin or Greek. If this plan is persisted in it will ruin the memory by making it purely dependent on mechanical aid. It is better to leave out a word altogether than to acquire such a fatal habit. Generally after a little exertion suitable words will occur, which, if they do not answer to the letter of the English, will reproduce its spirit. And here we may give a warning against a slavish copying of the English, which can never be adequately rendered by a word for word translation. As in unseen translation, the whole passage should be read through carefully until the connexion of the whole is manifest, and then should be rendered into idiomatic, not Anglicised, Latin: English phrases and metaphors are not to be translated literally into Latin, but into

their proper and corresponding equivalents. For this wide reading is necessary, and our last advice, as was our first, is to devote constant and intelligent study to Cicero and Thucydides; Demosthenes and Livy, for from an appreciation of them alone (and of their compeers), can come an ability to write pure prose.

Verse Composition.

III. Verse Composition too, demands great attention. Easy grace it is very hard to acquire, for several qualifications are necessary—an accurate knowledge of the thoughts, metre, and style of the Classic poets; some degree of poetic power; and an absence of the marks of slavish imitation usually so manifest. It is the want of these gifts which makes the verse of most men so bald and lifeless.

General Scholarship Paper.

IV. General Critical Paper.

The student, if he has read his work carefully, and according to the method prescribed in the foregoing pages, should find no difficulty in answering this paper fairly well. Especially will he find that frequent reference to works on Syntax, Antiquities, &c., will have stored his mind with a large quantity of knowledge, much of which he may use here with effect. The questions set in this paper generally bear on points of Grammar and Syntax, Greek and Roman Antiquities, and some Philology. Besides those works of reference he may have used in reading his authors, he will gain much advantage from Farrar's Greek Syntax, an admirable little work.

For Antiquities he may read Ramsay's (Elementary) Manual of Roman Antiquities, Becker's Gallus and Charicles, Mahaffy's "Social Life in Greece" (in parts, and with discretion), and (in Macmillan's Primers of Literature) Mahaffy and

Wilkins on Greek and Roman Antiquities. Also for general reference he should always have Smith's (smaller) Dictionary of Antiquities, and Classical Dictionary.

For Philology the most useful books are Peile and Papillon. The latter read carefully should be sufficient.

English. V. General English Paper.

The general paper is made up of questions adapted to bring out the "culture" of the candidate, his knowledge of history, politics, or literature. He should, therefore, read some works bearing on

History. these subjects. First he may read Freeman's "General Sketch of European History." Then he may study in parts, Green's "Short History of the English People," an admirable and very in-

Literature. teresting work. He will find clever little sketches of English and Greek Literature in the "Primers" of Messrs. S. Brooke and Jebb. Cruttwell's "Roman Literature" is an exhaustive, accurate, and interesting book. For a wider survey of English Literature, Prof. H. Morley's "First Sketch" may be consulted. Froude's "Short Studies," and Macaulay's Essays, are books which will always repay perusal.

Political Economy. Some knowledge of Political Economy will be useful, as several questions are often set on this subject. The student may read Jevons' "Primer," and, for a fuller view, Mrs. Fawcett's "Political Economy for Beginners."

Logic. Questions on Logic are occasionally set; Jevons' "Primer" and Whately's "Logic" may be consulted with profit. This study, however, is not so necessary, and should be postponed if the student is at all pressed for time.

It must be understood that success in this paper will depend far more upon the general habits and tastes of the student than upon his acquaintance with certain definite treatises. If the candidate is of an inquiring mind, and takes interest in general literature and political questions, his success should be assured; whereas, if such attributes are absent, and his mind never rises above the study of certain necessary authors, no amount of general reading will make him intelligent. It will be advisable for the student to practise English Composition, for generally an essay is required, and at all events to write his papers in a neat and lucid style is to have advanced several steps towards success. General culture necessary.

The student should always acquaint himself with the current topics and questions of the day, by reading newspapers and reviews. This advice may seem trivial, but there is often among young men such an extraordinary ignorance of and indifference to all that takes place around them that we cannot wonder at their unintelligent study of ancient events, when the important issues of daily life excite in their minds but a languid and feeble interest. Examiners require from candidates something more than a knowledge of special books, and an intelligent reference to passing events will often indicate a bent of mind which Tutors welcome. It is impossible to study ancient literature without reference to modern parallels. The Past and the Present can only be understood by examining their mutual relations; in divorcing one from the other the real means of comprehending either is completely lost.

We have discussed all those subjects on which

the candidate will probably be examined, and it now remains only to offer some general suggestions on the student's conduct of the examination.

Hints for examination itself.

We have mentioned before the great advantage of a good style; not only must this be correct and neat, but the papers themselves must be shown up without the marks of untidiness so often evident. The student should also be extremely careful as to his spelling, and to insure correctness in form as well as in matter, should always read over his papers before sending them in. He will find it advisable to revise each question as it is finished, and to allow himself ten minutes at the last for a final review.

Discretion to be used in answering the General Papers.

In the General Papers the student should be careful not to commit the very fatal blunder of considering that it is necessary to attempt every question. If such an attempt be made, the result must be that none of the answers will show substantial knowledge on the part of the candidate, supposing him to possess any. The questions set are very numerous (sometimes amounting to twenty), and the Examiners know that it is impossible to answer satisfactorily much above one-half, or at most two-thirds, nor do they expect more. Half a paper answered fully and carefully will carry more favour with a Tutor than the whole done in a style which shows the universal knowledge displayed by the candidate in most cases to be purely superficial, and the result of "cram." The student should read over the paper of questions at once, and determine which he is best able to answer. He should then judge how much time he may give to each, and be careful not to trespass much over the amount allotted. The

time allowed for a paper is usually three hours; and this will give about twenty minutes for each question if he does no more than ten, which should be quite sufficient. Let him commence with the question which he is best able to answer, and, after giving it a few minutes' thought, write his ideas in good plain English, free from all turgidity and flowery phrase. He should show a definite method in his answers, and his thoughts should follow each other in proper logical sequence. For this purpose it may be well to jot down briefly certain heads under which the given question may be discussed. At all events the student should analyse his answer, and see that the conclusions follow properly from the arguments. A paper written in this way will show the knowledge and style of the student to the utmost advantage, and to secure it nothing but a little care and practice is necessary.

Clear writing.

We may here warn the candidate against taxing his brain too much immediately before or during the examination. His ordeal will last three or four days of six hours each, and this is work sufficiently hard for a young student. He should take what exercise he can, and be careful to retire early to bed, for a good night's rest is the best medicine for a mind which has borne much strain during the day. It is well for him to leave all books behind, and if his studies have been regular and well-organised he may do so without any loss.

Attention to health.

Mathematical Scholarships.

The student who aims at a Mathematical Scholarship will do well to arrange his reading in the following order :—

Todhunter's Euclid (except Book V.), } To be studied
Todhunter's Algebra, } side by side.
Todhunter's Trigonometry.
Todhunter's Theory of Equations.
Todhunter's Conic Sections, } To be studied
Drew's, Taylor's, or Besant's { Geometrical Conic Sections, } side by side.

Todhunter's Differential Calculus may also be read, but is not always required.

Sometimes a Paper on Mechanics is given ; for this Todhunter's Mechanics for Beginners, and Besant's Elementary Hydrostatics, will be found quite sufficient.

It may be noticed that accurate book-work always carries great weight.*

The above books, read carefully, should be sufficient to prepare the student for any ordinary Mathematical Examination.

Science Scholarships at Oxford are awarded for excellence in either of three subjects—viz. (1) Physics, (2) Chemistry, (3) Biology.

To prepare for these the student should read the following books :—

(1.) Physical Scholarships.

Dechanel's Physics, Todhunter's Mechanics.

For the Chemical portion of the examination : The inorganic part of Williamson's

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* Cf., p. 215.

Chemistry, Harcourt and Madan's Practical Chemistry.

(2.) Chemical Scholarships.

Williamson's Chemistry, Harcourt and Madan, Roscoe and Schorleimer, Armstrong (the organic portion). These two latter works are to be studied side by side.

On Physics the student should read Dechanel, and Todhunter's Mechanics.

(3.) Biology Scholarships.

Huxley and Martin's Biology, Huxley's Physiology, Michael Foster's Physiology, Huxley's Anatomy of Vertebrated Animals.

On Chemistry, as for Physical Scholarships.

CHAPTER IX.

EXAMINATIONS.

The theory of Examinations a sound one.

IT is not unnaturally one of Oxford's proudest boasts that in the Examinations which are her great test of merit she consults every task, and furnishes opportunity for the display of knowledge the most wide and varied. It is not necessary here to defend the system of Examinations—for theoretically it needs no defence. It is obvious that no other equal means exists for drawing out the knowledge, and determining the intellectual position of a number of men. The system has, no doubt, been carried to an absurd extreme, and used for purposes for which it is totally inadequate; but, generally, it must always remain a principal incentive to, and satisfactory termination of, a course of hard study.

Objects of the various Examinations.

The Examinations of the University are numerous and varied. The first, Responsions, is simply a guarantee of very ordinary qualifications in a student; the second, Moderations, marks the intellectual progress which accompanies the student after a year and a half or two years' study, and is devoted to Classical or Mathematical subjects of a more advanced character, between which the candidate may choose at will. The Final Examination is divided into several branches, and the student has the opportunity of selecting from "Literæ Humaniores" (consisting chiefly of Ancient History and Philosophy), Modern History, Mathe-

Honours.

matics, Law, Science, and Theology. These are Honour Schools—but of most of these there are Pass offshoots for those of lower mental calibre. It is not necessary that Honours should be sought in both Schools, or in any. There are several alternatives open. In the first place, the student may eschew Honours altogether, and content himself with a Pass Degree. But this is in many cases a most unsatisfactory result of a University education, and all who are able should seek Honours in some one School. The work read for a Pass Degree is scarcely likely to promote culture in after-life, and often a Class may be gained with a very little more labour than is expended on a Pass. Generally, men are not able to judge accurately their own capabilities, and many men have thrown away their chances of success in a future career by a foolish mistrust of their own powers.

Various alternatives.

The Pass-work in itself of small value.

The second alternative is to decline Honours in Moderations, but to seek them in Finals. Or, the student may take Honours in Mods, but content himself with a Pass in "Greats." Or, the last and best alternative, he may read for Honours in both Schools.

First as to Moderations. The student will probably have decided before his entrance into the University whether he will read for Honours in this Examination or not. He will generally be able to judge for himself of his ability to do so, and will of course receive advice from his Tutor on the subject. If he has been well taught at a good School, and has read only moderately high work, he should certainly not lose the opportunity. For even a low class gained in Moderations is of the

Honour Moderations.

Only fair capabilities necessary.

Advantages of, and reasons for, reading for Honours.

greatest advantage, not only for his future prospects, but also for the knowledge acquired, and the cultivation of habits of industry. If a man, immediately on his entrance at a College, commences to work fairly well, the study necessary for any Final Honour School will not seem so laborious ; whereas, if he spends his first year and a half in languidly reading for Pass Mods, his Finals work will be novel and wearisome. Moreover, the benefit of a good previous education is lost (at all events outwardly, and to the world), unless the result is seen in a Class ; nor does his School gain that credit which is certainly its due. If his education has been sound and good, he will find no difficulty in reading for Moderations.

At some Colleges men are compelled to read for Honours in some one School ; but even where this is not so, the student should (supposing, of course, he possess the requisite ability), of his own free will, elect to read for a Class in Moderations. To the undoubted benefits of an Oxford education he should add those derived from a study of the authors, of whose traditional association with her culture Oxford is justly proud.

Moderations should be passed as soon as possible.

If, however, from want of proper education, inveterate dislike to Classics (a rare characteristic we should imagine), or from some other reason, he determines to postpone his real study to the Final Schools, he should certainly attempt to have passed his Moderations by the end of his first year, by which means he will gain an extra year for his Honour Schools. There are, of course, many men whose health had prevented hard study during their boyhood, and who are unable to surmount the technical difficulties of Moderations, while they

may find themselves in a congenial sphere in philosophy, history, or law.

Final Schools, choice of.

In his choice of Final Schools each man will be guided chiefly by his own tastes, and there are few who will not recognise the study most suited to their capabilities. To those whose minds are wavering, or who do not feel satisfied as to their strong point, we decidedly recommend the choice of "Literæ Humaniores." We shall discuss more fully the reasons for this recommedation in the chapter devoted to that subject. In the meanwhile we will say that no other Examination furnishes such varied food for thought, or is so adapted to give that intellectual polish to a man which has always been regarded as the proper test of an Oxford student. In saying this we by no means disparage the other Examinations, or insinuate their uselessness. "Greats"* has always been *the* Oxford School, and, as we said, is more likely to rouse a man's powers of thought, and endow him with that culture which is so indefinable, and yet so strongly marked.

"Literæ Humaniores" the highest school.

A generally useful School.

In speaking of this School we may remark that the plan adopted by some men of reading for Honour Moderations, but contenting themselves with a Pass in Finals, is not a satisfactory one. In some cases, where a Class in Moderations is of the utmost importance, and the speedy completion of the University career is desired, this policy may be necessary. But those students who are destined for the scholastic profession, and who imagine that a Class in Moderations is alone valuable for success

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* When we make use of the term "Greats" we shall not use it in its generic sense, but as signifying "Lit. Human."—the "Greats" school par excellence.

A class always valuable.

in that line, err greatly. No doubt such a Class is valuable—even indispensable; but a good Class in "Greats" is always regarded as most important, and carries great weight, even though the work read for that Examination may not be directly of use in a School curriculum.

Method of study for Examinations.

After these remarks we will proceed to offer a few suggestions on the mode of reading to be followed. It is evident those who have in a certain period to complete an amount of work, for which, in most cases, double the time allowed would scarcely suffice, must not only give themselves wholly to their work, but must adopt a definite method of reading from which they should swerve as little as possible. It is of the utmost importance to fix upon such a system immediately, and when once this has been adopted and faithfully pursued from time to time, the advantages will be easily seen, and the results agreeably apparent. In an Examination where probably the bulk of the matter to be studied is new to the student, reading by fits and starts will prove his ruin, and a careless and desultory habit of study thus ingrained in his character, will cling to him throughout life, and render him unfit for those serious pursuits and occupations for which an Oxford career ought to be a useful preparation.

Necessity of fixed and methodical plan.

Number of hours necessary.

In speaking of the number of hours a day which should be devoted to study, our calculations may not approve themselves to all men. But it must be understood that these remarks are written not for the youthful genius, who may dispense with the common aids to study, nor for the "smug," who never devotes an hour to pleasure, but for the ordinary fairly educated undergraduate. To him,

to the student of good ability and fair health, four and a half hours a day must form the minimum average of his study. With less than this we believe it, generally speaking, to be impossible to gain a good class, and for a First, another hour must be added. We say "average," because it is impossible to read for the same definite number of hours every day. The many distractions and amusements of Oxford life will often rob the student of several hours in one day, while on another he may be left to himself, and be able to compensate by extra study for the time lost the previous day. The ordinary reading undergraduate will usually find that twice a week at least his evenings partially, if not wholly, will be taken up in dispensing or receiving hospitality, and when he returns to his rooms to study, will understand that the man who is to grapple with some knotty question of metaphysics or law, must approach his subject with head clear, and mind freed from all discomposing thoughts.

An average of four and a-half hours sufficient for a Second Class.

Impossible to read for a fixed period every day.

There can scarcely be a doubt that the morning is the most favourable time for study, and that three hours steady work when the head is fresh, the mind unburdened, and the body unfatigued, will be worth in the end five hours taken in a state of mental and physical lassitude. Some men will assert that their brain is more active in the small hours of the night than at any other period of the day. This may be true in some cases, but generally such a plan is only too likely to injure permanently the constitution. Of course a specific rule cannot be laid down on this, as on other matters, but generally, it may be said that the three hours after breakfast should never be lost. The

Winter Terms.

Importance of morning work.

These hours never to be lost.

student then should determine that three hours, at all events, he will devote solely to his study.

Afternoon. It will often be found possible to work for half an hour or an hour before Hall, and if this can be done, the advantage is undeniable. At all events an hour is more profitably consumed thus than at the Union or the Clubs, or in that common occupation of the idle—a game of Billiards.

Evening. It is very difficult to give advice as to work after Hall, for the subject is complicated not only by the students individual idiosyncrasies, but by the customs of his College and his friends. This much, however, we may say, reading should never begin (supposing Hall to be at 6 o'clock) till 8 o'clock, for the body and the brain are in such a state of torpor after a hearty meal, that intellectual food of any kind, and especially that which requires concentrated thought, can scarcely be properly appreciated. Moreover, a man is often obliged to attend some wine-party, or other entertainment, which may detain him till 9 or 10 o'clock; and, even then, friends have an awkward way of dropping in casually, to remain in spite of any hints which may be dropped as to the advisability of their departure. It is thus clear that the chief portion of the day's work must be sought in the morning, and if three hours can be done then, half an hour before Hall, and one hour and a half after dinner, the student will have reason to congratulate himself on his success.

Unadvisable to read directly after dinner.

In Summer a different method necessary.

The plan we have here sketched has reference only to the two winter Terms; in the Summer Term a somewhat different method must be adopted. Then the morning's work may proceed as before, but the evening's study will usually be

much curtailed. This loss the student must make up by extra reading in the afternoon, or early evening. For instance, he may read from five to seven, or six to eight o'clock, when supper (the usual Summer substitute for dinner) will await him. After this, much work is exceedingly improbable, and if he manage four hours and a half in the Summer, he will have done a fair day's reading. Of course, as the Examination draws near, the hours must be increased, and during the first part of the last Term, and the Term before, seven hours a day is not at all excessive.

Folly of measuring work done by hours actually consumed, or number of pages read.

But though the student should always read a certain number of hours, he must be careful not to measure the amount of work done by the hours he has read. There is often no more ruinous plan than this, for of course the time a man spends before an open book does not always represent a corresponding amount of real work. Many men who complacently contemplate their weekly average of six hours a day, have in fact only completed an amount of work which might have been done in half the time. On the other hand, no one should measure his progress simply by the number of pages read. This plan is as bad as the former one, and perhaps worse, as it induces to scamping and hurrying the work, in order to complete the customary number of pages.

Unwise to keep late hours.

While we are speaking of the number of hours, we may distinctly assert that, in most cases, late hours will prove a great hindrance to success. The man who goes to bed at two o'clock can hardly rise till 9.30, in which case his morning's work will not be begun till 10.30 or 11 o'clock, and thus his early reading which, as we said, should

form the substantial part of the day's study, will dwindle down to two hours, or perhaps less. The latest hour for retiring should be 12 o'clock or 12.30, and the student will thus be able to be up, perhaps to Chapel, and, at all events, will have finished his breakfast by 9.30, ready at 10 o'clock to commence his morning's work.

Luxury and hard reading in most cases inconsistent.

Many men have a habit of reading in their arm-chairs, which are often fitted with a book-rest; but this custom, though extremely comfortable, will not be found, generally, to accord with hard study. To read Aristotle, Mill, or Austin, the intellect must be wholly given up to the subject in hand, whereas a luxurious couch is only too apt to enervate the mind, and distract it from its proper object. Moreover, when a student is lying back in an easy-chair he will not be able to take notes, or at all events will not feel disposed to do so. Thus it will be found that the laziness of an hour will entail a laborious study in after time. There are, of course, many men who will entirely dispute this, and assert that they are able to read far better in an easy-chair than on a hard seat. The mind, they argue, is distracted as much by discomfort as by luxury. This is true, but may not the truth lie midway? An ordinary chair is not necessarily uncomfortable, and is certainly the only one which can be used before a desk or table, on which to take notes. We think there is no doubt that luxurious ease and hard reading do not accord. Some may combine the two, but to the ordinary man an attempt to do so will prove fatal. The proper way to read Philosophy, History, in fact most subjects, is always to have ready at one's side the note book in which to write down

Proper way of reading.

any important fact or ray of light on the subject. And here we may give a caution against an excessive love for note-books. Some men appear to imagine that to fill up half a dozen or more books with selections from Grote or Mommsen, is to have mastered their periods of Greek or Roman history; and the same method is equally, sometimes more fully, carried out with regard to Plato and Aristotle. But we believe that there is not a more mistaken notion than this, or one more prejudicial to the work in hand. The real use of note-books is to collect under general headings scattered notices in the different authors—of men and places, opinions, traits of character, inconsistencies, &c.* These notices, written down shortly at the time of reading, will prove invaluable, and should be read again and again before the time for Examination arrives. It is necessary to note them down at the time of reading, as we said, for their collection afterwards will involve a long and laborious search throughout the entire books.

Note-books, their use and abuse.

Abuse.

Use and value of.

Again, in analysing a book, a very useful operation if carried out properly, it is not necessary to turn what should be a brief synopsis into what is, practically, a translation. One line is quite sufficient to give the gist of a page of most authors ;†

Short analysis useful.

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* *E.g.*, in Thucydides to collect the various notices of Athenian influence in Sicily; in Plato the germs of Aristotelian teaching, or the results of Pythagorean influence; in Herodotus the notices of Miletus; in Tacitus the prerogatives and growth of the imperial power.

† This of course refers only to the classical authors. But the same may be said, *mutatis mutandis*, of modern philosophers or historians.

a more lengthy analysis is to be found in most editions of the author in question.

Interleaved books very useful.

In the Classical Schools, the use of interleaved books is, in some cases, very necessary. The commentaries are extremely numerous and lengthy, and a judicious selection of notes from these, written down in an interleaved copy, will dispense with the necessity of reading them a second time, and thus save much valuable time.

Notes, properly made, invaluable.

Details on these points we shall postpone until we come to discuss the particular authors. Note books legitimately used, are very valuable, and it is amazing how much knowledge may be acquired by collecting small details, which the student might pass over in an ordinary perusal. A good note-book to Herodotus or Thucydides will always furnish an accurate answer to two out of three questions, and the same is true of many other subjects. But indiscriminate noting down of everything bearing on the subject in hand, whether in the note-book or interleaved copy, is worse than useless; for it is not only a waste of time, but the student, when the crisis arrives, will not be able, in the multitude of notes, to find that which is really valuable.

Lectures.

We shall now proceed to offer a few suggestions on lectures. Here we approach a most delicate subject, for, if we are to speak impartially, we must offend more or less those Tutors with whom our remarks are concerned. There can be no doubt that much valuable time is taken up and wasted in attending a large number of lectures, from which the information derived amounts to little better than nothing. No doubt, in most cases, this is not the fault of the lecturer, but of

In many cases useless.

his position. He is paid to deliver lectures on certain well-worn subjects, on which exhaustive works have been written, to which he can hope to add nothing original. All he is able to effect is to put points in a different or clearer light, or to collect and criticise various views on various questions. If this is done well, the results may be very useful; for it is an undoubted fact that oral instruction, well delivered, makes more impression upon the ordinary man than a dozen pages of a book, however brilliantly written. On some subjects lectures are perfectly necessary, on others they will only interfere with continuous study, by breaking up the morning's work. But there is this to be said for them, that they are almost the only means of forcing idle men to read. The man who knows that the Tutor will the next day expect him to bring up three hundred lines of Virgil, feels in a way obliged to give them some attention, which he probably would not have done, if left to himself. The use of the lecture depends, of course, equally upon the ability of the lecturer, and the attention or capacity of the student. If either are wanting, what might have been a benefit becomes a burden, and either the Tutor degenerates into a drone, or the student into an unintelligent drudge.

Value of.

Accidental uses of.

In his choice of lectures, the man who wishes to economise his four or five hours a day as much as possible, will often find a difficult task. But first we may say that he should never give up, unless under special circumstances, more than nine or ten hours a week, which may be more than a third of his working time. This determined upon, he should, with the aid of his College Tutor,

Choice and arrangement of Lectures.

select those lectures which he thinks, or hears, will be most useful to him. He should not be led away by the mere renown of the lecturer for cleverness, for it is notorious that some of the most clever and well-read men are the least able to impart their knowledge. The best plan is to gain information from a friend as to the usefulness of any given lecture, and to make one's choice accordingly. If, when the lecture has been attended for some time, no beneficial results are apparent, the student should, if possible, withdraw his name. But this should only be done when the lecture is clearly only a *réchauffé*, badly put together, of the standard work on the subject; for often, amid a desert of common-places, one comes upon some oasis of suggestive thought, fully repaying the hours before seemingly wasted.

If possible, lectures should be chosen which come at the commencement or finish of the morning's work, so that the intermediate time may not be broken into.

Difficulty of taking notes.

The inexperienced student will no doubt at first find some difficulty in taking down the remarks of the Tutor, which are usually delivered with great rapidity. He will probably soon learn a method by which he may be able to take down what is valuable, and reject the useless. This must be left in great measure to his own discretion. He will generally find it necessary to adopt some system of shorthand, which to be useful must be consistent. If the notes taken at a lecture are to be of any use, they must, in most cases, be copied out again, and thoroughly digested. For they will usually be so confused and indistinct, that, if they are left for two or three months, it will often

Necessity of copying out notes taken.

be impossible to read, much more to understand them.

It will be advisable to gradually lessen the number of lectures as the Examination approaches, and for the last Term to cease attendance altogether, unless some necessary subject still remains.

New system of combination.

The system of lectures has lately been much improved by the establishment of combined College lectures, open to the members of the Colleges included in the arrangement; thus men are no longer confined to the small batch of Tutors of their own College, but have the choice of, in most cases, two on any given subject.

Method of reading together.

It has often been asked whether the system of several men combining together to read an author is a profitable one, and the answer generally given is in the negative. But we think that the plan is worthy of more serious consideration, and in many cases would prove extremely useful. It has of course its disadvantages, the chief one obviously being that where two or three men are together, the attention is likely to be distracted from work to more lively subjects. But if the men really desire to improve themselves, and conscientiously debar all outside topics, the amount of assistance to be derived is very great. There are of course many passages in the authors to be studied, which are not touched upon by the Commentators, but which often present serious difficulties to one student, while they may be perfectly clear to another. Nor is this confined to particular authors, but in History, Philosophy, Law, in fact in every subject where difficulties are frequent, the mutual aid arising from the interchange of two men's thoughts is certainly not to be despised. Among other advantages,

Its value depends upon the men.

Necessity of translating aloud.

the student will acquire by this plan great facility in translation, a qualification most rare and valuable. In most cases, it is impossible to acquire great ability in translation, unless the rendering be read out to, or written out for, other persons. The first method is very important, as it is adapted to put the man on his mettle, and to conquer that nervousness which is fatal to many in the Schools. No one knows how badly he translates, until he is tried by an impartial person, and he should take all the means in his power to succeed in so difficult and invaluable an art.

Importance of cultivating a correct and lucid English style.

In most of the Examinations an ability to write his native language with clearness and grace is of the utmost importance to the student. Many a man, with a fair knowledge of details, has spoilt his chances of success by a slovenly and careless style. It is not to be expected that Examiners should waste their limited time in deciphering bad handwriting, or in endeavouring to understand a badly expressed sentence; while an easy and graceful style must naturally influence them in the candidate's favour. An involved and obscure style of writing is generally an index to the writer's mind, and a moderate thought, expressed in an elegant and lucid manner, is more valuable in every way than one more profound but clothed in confused or hideous language. To gain the art of writing English, much practice is absolutely necessary. A man may see clearly in his own mind the meaning of his thoughts, but he may be utterly unable to interpret them to others, and this inability can only be removed by constant and conscientious exercise. For this reason men should cheerfully welcome the opportunities afforded them

Much practice necessary.

by their Tutors of writing essays or papers. Certainly it is not wise to spend too much time in such work, and an essay once a week should be amply sufficient. The student should accustom himself to marshal his ideas in a regular and consistent order; his thoughts should follow one another in proper sequence, and not appear like a fortuitous disposition of atoms. If he gain such power, he need not fear the ordeal of the Schools which will put his ability to the test, but will find that, in the three hours allowed for a paper, he has shown more substantial knowledge, better and more logically expressed, than those who have despised the aids of which he has taken advantage. On the other hand, the student must be on his guard against a showy and empty rhetoric. Fine language which only covers vacancy of intellect and want of real knowledge is useless, and will soon be detected by an experienced Examiner, and the ability of the candidate gauged at its proper measure. Sound is excellent combined with good matter; without it, it is perhaps pleasing to the ear, but quite profitless.

Essays and papers should be written in which a logical method should be visible.

Empty rhetoric useless.

The student who adopts a good method in his reading will always so arrange his work that his last Term may be reserved more or less for a final perusal, and a strengthening of his weak points. It must be remembered that the Term in which his Examination takes place consists for him in reality of only five weeks. When we say that during the week before the Examination only very light work should be attempted, it will be seen that but a small amount of time is left. The student, then, must be careful not to count much upon this period, and should leave himself a month

Arrangement of work.

Last Term to be reserved for a general review.

for his most important books, and a careful reading of all that is valuable in his note-books—in fact, he must now "polish up" his work.

Reading to be gradually lessened as the Schools approach.

During the fortnight before the Examination he should by no means tax his brain much. The advice given in Chapter VIII. will hold good here, and we strongly recommend the student to allow himself much exercise, many hours' rest, and very little brain-work, for he should enter the Schools in the most hearty health, and with his brain quite clear. The excitement which most men feel is itself a severe tax upon the mind, and when this is combined with hard reading, the strain upon the intellectual and physical constitution is dangerous even for the strongest man.

During the Schools no reading to be done.

Hints for Examination.

At the risk of seeming too didactic in trifles, we advise the student to rise in good time on the morning of the Examination, and after breakfast to take a short stroll and inhale some fresh air. After the morning's paper he should be careful not to take too hearty a lunch, and again should refresh himself with a little exercise. In the afternoon he should take a long walk, and for the rest of the day should be strictly careful and moderate in his diet, and retire early to refresh both mind and body. This advice is not unnecessary, for there are many men who impair their chances of success by studying in the intervals of the Examination, or denying themselves rest or exercise. To disregard in this way the first rules of prudence, is to come very near to failure.

Lucidity indispensable.

With regard to the Examination itself, the hints we gave in Chapter VIII. may prove useful here also. If any further advice be needed, it is that the student should be most careful in putting

nothing on paper which he does not himself completely understand. If his own thoughts are not clear when he is interpreter, it is scarcely likely that they will be so to the Examiners. Let him avoid all high-sounding empty phrases, all inconsistencies, and all adoption of ultra opinions for the mere sake of contrariety. If the paper does not "suit" him, and he feels somewhat "at sea," his best plan is to keep strictly within the limits of his knowledge, and not to attempt questions beyond his abilities. "*Ars est celare artem*;" and here he should conceal his ignorance as much as possible by avoiding the treatment of all subjects on which he feels doubtful. There are few papers which will not contain some questions he may answer clearly, if not brilliantly; and if he answers only one-third of a paper well, he will at all events have insured a success he would have endangered by an attempt to answer the whole. On the other hand, the student must not give too much time to one question to the prejudice of all the others. Some men will write lengthy essays on two questions, and consequently are driven to answer the rest very hurriedly. We think the student should always attempt two-thirds of a paper, supposing he is able to do as much, and should be careful to mark at once his subjects, and apportion to each a certain amount of time. The natural and proper course is to attack those questions first of which he is most sure, and to follow a similar method in the rest. To speak of smaller matters, we may repeat what we said before; he should send up his papers neat and clean, legibly written, and (a most important point) free from all errors of spelling. To insure this he should always read over his

Careful choice of questions, where neither too many nor too few questions should be attempted.

Necessity of neatness and legibility.

papers at the finish of each question. If he postpones this revision to the last, he will probably be taken by surprise when the last minute has come, and will be obliged to show up his sheets rough and uncorrected.

CHAPTER X.

THE PASS SCHOOLS.

Responsions.

"Smalls," an easy examination which should be passed at once.

THIS Examination, as its ordinary undergraduate name, "Smalls," suggests, is of a very elementary nature, though it is probably the most vexatious of all the Schools, and we therefore advise men at once to face it. Many students who matriculate at a College at the end of any term take advantage of the occurrence of this Examination at that time, and at once make their attempt, which, if it results in success, enables them to enter upon their University career unimpeded by the hopes and fears which are always entailed by the imminence of "Smalls." It is an amazing fact that out of those men who come up to Oxford, having received a good Public School education, a large proportion fail in, or with difficulty pass, an examination which should not put to a severe test the capabilities of an ordinary schoolboy. The cause of failure is no doubt generally to be sought in the idleness and carelessness of the student himself, who will often consider an Examination of such a petty character far beneath him, and a course of methodical reading quite superfluous. From which pleasing delusion it is needless to say that many receive a rude awakening. But often ill-success is the result of a bad system of education, or of actual inability. In the first case the interests of the average

Failure, reasons of.

student may have been postponed to the "cramming" of the more promising boy, whose ambition is a Scholarship; or, in the laudable zeal of the master for general culture, the elementary foundations of knowledge may have been neglected, and the boy who can discuss glibly the merits of a social or political question may be utterly unable to do a sum in "Rule of Three," or to give the genitive of *iter*. But there are others who are really unable. Those whose experience has lain in this direction will readily confirm the statement that very many men are quite unable to work out intelligently the simplest problem of geometry or algebra, and whose only chance of answering a paper on such subjects depends upon their ability to learn by heart and retain in their memory such problems. As a rule, too, men who have devoted most of their time to one subject naturally fail when examined upon another. The classical scholar is dumbfounded when confronted by a sum in Proportion; the mathematical man is hopelessly puzzled at the parts of a Greek irregular verb; and, unless these determine each to strengthen his weak point, failure necessarily follows. For the ordinary fairly educated man a little care and industry are all that is necessary, nor should he certainly require the services of a private coach, unless to look over and correct papers. In other matters the College Tutor should be sufficient. It is an excellent plan to work out a number of "Smalls" papers, either in writing or *vivâ voce*. The first method is preferable, as it insures some amount of care and thought, and accustoms the student to the often difficult art of

Papers to be worked through.

answering questions. This is especially useful in the case of Grammar.

Subjects of Examination.

With regard to the various subjects to be offered we may make a few remarks. Concerning Algebra the regulations are sufficiently precise. For this the smaller Algebra of Todhunter, or the more elaborately explanatory one of Hamblin Smith, may be used. On Arithmetic and Geometry we can only refer to our remarks in Chapter VIII.*

Algebra, Euclid, and Arithmetic.

Grammar.

In the Grammar Paper probably a large number of men will fail. For Latin Grammar the "Latin Primer," and for Greek the Grammar of Wordsworth (or Parry) will be found sufficient. The latter may be supplemented by Farrar's Notes on syntax. For the Grammar Paper all irregularities of declension, conjugation, or elementary Syntax should be carefully noticed; and if the papers of the last three years are well worked up, the answers to two or three questions are assured. In the papers there are often given short idiomatic Latin or Greek passages for translation. Many of such are to be found at the beginning or end of the various Composition manuals.

Prose.

For the Latin Prose grammatical accuracy is all that is needed, and a piece free from more than two blunders will generally pass muster. There are several manuals likely to give assistance, of which we may specify Wilkins' Latin Prose Exercises, Bradley's Latin Prose, and Kennedy's "Curriculum Stili Latini." A small book by Dr. Abbott, "Latin Prose through

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* P. 135.

English Idiom," is found useful by many. The student should remember it is not here so necessary to cultivate style as accuracy in elementary questions of Grammar.

Authors, choice of.

The student is practically allowed to choose whatever book he pleases, on condition of giving early notice to the Examiners. It is difficult here to give advice, as men are naturally influenced in their choice by the amount or nature of the books they have already read. Two books must be offered, one Greek and one Latin; and, with two exceptions, the same authors cannot be offered for Pass Moderations. To those who are wavering in their choice, and who do not intend to seek Honours in Moderations, we should advise the selection of the first four books of Cæsar's Gallic War, and the first four books of Xenophon's Anabasis, or any two consecutive books of Livy, and the Hecuba and Medea of Euripides. We think these books will be found easy reading, though several of the other authors proposed are not much more difficult. It is useless to suppose that Pass-men will eschew the assistance of translations, but we would urge upon them the necessity of using them only to a moderate extent. We believe that there is no more fatal plan than to depend entirely upon such aids (wrongly so-called) to study, and that a very large proportion of the men who fail owe their ill-success in great measure to this unintelligent habit of reading. As we have said before, the meaning of a passage which has been mastered by the aid of Dictionary and Grammar will remain in the memory far longer than if it has been learnt quickly, but improperly, from a "crib." Moreover, by referring to the Dictionary

Method of reading.

or the Grammar in this way, the student must learn much which will certainly prove useful for his Grammar Paper.

The student will see from the above remarks that to prepare for this examination involves only ordinary care and diligence. The longer Responsions are postponed the more burdensome and irritating will the work become, and for this and for every reason the student should attack and overcome it at once.

Pass Moderations.

"Mods."

Those who have determined to abandon all idea of Honours in Moderations should, as soon as they have passed Responsions, choose their books out of those proposed in the list given. The subjects of examination are five in number. 1. The four Gospels in Greek. 2. Logic (or Mathematics). 3. Latin Prose. 4. Three authors. 5. Unseen translations from Latin and Greek. For the Gospels may be substituted another Greek book. With regard to the Holy Gospels, we presume the student will have already gained some acquaintance with these at School, and that his work will simply be the furbishing-up of former knowledge. However this may be, they must certainly not be neglected, either with regard to their text, or subject-matter, which may be learnt from Maclear's Handbook. For candidates who offer Mathematics the subjects are Algebra as far as Quadratic Equations, containing one unknown quantity, and the simplest properties of Ratio and Proportion; and Geometry—Euclid, III.–IV. 1–9.

Subjects of examination.

Gospels.

Mathematics.

Logic will, most probably, be untried ground to the student, and we advise him to consider well

Logic somewhat difficult.

before he chooses this in preference to Mathematics. If he considers that the latter are above his capabilities, or prefer from the novelty of the subject to take up Logic, he must be prepared for hard, and, perhaps, uninteresting reading, demanding not only close attention, but fair powers of memory. The Logic offered for Pass Moderations is, in great part, deductive and formal, and thus far less useful and interesting than the portions of that science taken up by Honour men. The subjects of examination are the elements of Logic, Deductive and Inductive, and may be studied in Jevons' Elementary Lessons, or in Fowler's Deductive Logic and Inductive Logic (c. 1–5). In the last books the sections on Classification, Nomenclature, and Terminology, and the notes appended at the end of each chapter, should be omitted. Both these authors have the great merit of making Formal Logic, a subject which must always be somewhat repellent, more interesting and intelligible, and their books are thus a great advance on all former manuals. Swinbourne's Picture Logic is an amusing and interesting work, and we believe has proved of use to many men. The student will find it necessary to attend a lecture on Logic, and the notes so gained should assist him much in his preliminary study of the subject. Examples and questions from the examination papers should be carefully worked out, and by these means the student will become familiarised with the strange appearance of many of the Logic questions. These are often stated in so puzzling a manner, that unless a man has accustomed himself to their appearance by constant practice, he will probably be confused, and fail even to understand their meaning.

Books on Logic.

Exercise needed.

Latin Prose.

The Latin Prose required for Moderations is generally of a more idiomatic character than that in Responsions. This, of course, does not imply that a fine style is necessary, but that, whereas in "Smalls" the student must show chiefly an acquaintance with the ordinary rules of accidence and syntax, in Moderations he must prove that he possesses a somewhat more advanced knowledge of the Latin language. If we may recommend a model for his study, the "De Senectute" and "Amicitia" of Cicero, carefully read and translated, should prove useful in forming a simple, but idiomatic style.

The Student's College Tutor will, no doubt, prove a sufficient guide, and two pieces of composition a week should always be written. Sargent's "Easy Passages" is the book generally used at Oxford.

Books, choice of.

The student's choice of books will, as in Responsions, be regulated by the work he has done before. There are probably very few men who will find all the authors proposed unknown to them, though of course it may happen that a scanty list has been exhausted by Responsions work. The following is the list from which selection is to be made:—

Greek.	*Latin.*
*Herodotus, V., VI.	*Livy, V., VI., VII.
*Thucydides, VI., VII.	*Tacitus, Hist. I., II., III.
*Xenophon, Memor. I., II., IV.	*Cicero, De Naturâ Deorum.
*Plato, Apologia, Meno.	Cicero, Pro Roscio Amerino, Philipp. II.
*Aristotle, Polit. I., III.	Terence, Andr. Phorm. Heaut.
Demosthenes, De Coronâ.	Virgil, Æn. VII.–XII.
Homer, Iliad XVII.–XXII.	Horace, Sat. I., II., Epist. I., II.
Æschylus, Prom. Pers. Sept. c. Theb.	Juvenal (except Sat. II., VI., IX.).
Aristophanes, Acharn. Nubes.	

Out of this list three must be selected, two books being Latin and one Greek, or two Greek and one Latin, and one of such books at least being some portion of a historical or a philosophical work selected from those books which are marked with an asterisk. No candidate is allowed to offer any of the same books, or a portion of the same authors, in which he satisfied the Masters of the Schools at Responsions, except in the following cases:—

(1.) Candidates who have offered any portion of Cicero other than his orations at Responsions, may offer orations of Cicero at Moderations, and *vice versâ*.

(2.) Candidates who have offered the Odes or Epodes of Horace, together with the De Arte Poetica, at Responsions, may offer the Satires and Epistles at Moderations.

It should be said that the same rules apply to those who have satisfied the Examiners either of the Delegacy for the Examination of Schools, or of the Delegacy of Local Examinations.

Of these books a selection made up of Xenophon, Herodotus, and Horace (or Virgil) would, we think, present less difficulty to the student than any other, and would also prove fairly interesting.

Unseen Translation.

Lastly, there are set passages of Greek and Latin Unseen Translation. Of course these passages are not of such difficulty as those put before candidates for Honours, but still they prove formidable to many men. With regard to the attainment of success in this, we can only repeat again our advice of Chapter VIII.; diligent practice is the sole means of obtaining excellence.

The Examination in the Rudiments of Faith and Religion.

Divinity.

The subjects of this examination are :—

(1.) The books of the Old and New Testaments, the Holy Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles being required in the original Greek.

(2.) The Thirty-nine Articles.

Any candidate who shall object, or (not being of full age) his parent or guardian shall object, is allowed to offer, instead of the Articles, some one or more books of the Bible to be specially studied, or some period of Ecclesiastical History ; while a candidate who, on the same conditions, objects to the examination generally, may offer some book or books appointed by the Board of Studies.

Frequent failure.

This examination has, notwithstanding its elementary character, often proved a stumbling-block to those whose education in other respects has not been deficient. It is curious to notice the dread with which an examination, embracing such simple matter, is regarded, and the large amount of labour which is expended on its preparation. Combined with these facts, the various stories concerning the mistakes of unfortunate candidates, which are never suffered to grow obsolete, sufficiently show the amount of Scripture knowledge possessed by the average Oxford man. The various details of Bible history, drummed into the schoolboy in the ordinary uninteresting fashion, have, by the end of three years, quite passed out of memory, and the undergraduate is compelled to commence his Biblical studies with the addition of the Thirty-nine Articles. But generally speaking, if the student possesses even a small amount of

An easy examination.

Bible knowledge to start with, he will not find his energies severely taxed if he commences his work in good time. If he postpones all to the last, the inevitable scramble, and probably failure, ensues. An hour a day given to his divinity for two months should carry him through the ordeal easily and with credit. Maclear's Class Book is the best book to accompany the reading of the Old Testament, and is sometimes sufficient in itself, though there is in this case a danger that the student may not be able to give the exact and literal context to the quotations always set.

The Old and New Testaments.

In the New Testament the Greek text of the Acts probably requires the most attention, because less usually read than the Gospels. The passages to translate from the Greek are generally very simple, and in most cases are easily recognised from the context.

The Articles.

The student will have no difficulty in procuring a small edition of the Articles with notes and Scripture proofs, the most important of which he should learn. The Articles themselves it is hardly necessary to commit bodily to memory. The student is only required to understand the gist of each Article, and to be able to quote passages in support of any position. Thus he has only to exhibit an intelligent acquaintance with their matter and not merely a mechanical knowledge of the words.

To conclude, there is no reason why a very moderate amount of reading should not insure success ; in fact, failure here is scarcely creditable either to the student's general knowledge, or to his ability to work.

Pass School of the Second Public Examination.

The subjects for examination are arranged in three Groups. Final Schools.

A. (1). Two Books, either both Greek, or one Greek and one Latin; one of such books being some portion of a Greek philosophical work, and the other a portion of a Greek or Latin Historian. Choice of Subjects.

(2). The outlines of Greek and Roman History, with a special period of one or the other, and English Composition.

B. (1). Either English History and a period or subject of English Literature, or a period of Modern European History with Political and Descriptive Geography; together (in each case) with English Composition.

(2). A Modern Language, either French or German, including composition in the language, and a period of its Literature.

(3). The Elements of Political Economy.

(4). A branch of Legal Study.

C. (1). The Elements of Geometry.

(2). The Elements of Mechanics.

(3). The Elements of Chemistry.

(4). The Elements of Physics.

Each candidate shall be examined in three of the above subjects, of which not more than two shall be taken from any one of the three groups, and of which one must be either A. (1) or B. (2); and the examinations in the three subjects may be passed in separate Terms.

No candidate may offer the same books in which he satisfied the Masters of the Schools, or the Moderators.

The student will thus see that, with one

restriction, he has a very fair choice of subjects, and here his selection will especially depend upon his tastes or peculiar qualifications. Such being the case it is difficult to give definite advice. But we may say that the student will, supposing him to possess the necessary ability, show wisdom in preferring French or German to the philosophical and historical authors, for to the average Pass-Man the latter are difficult, and include generally the Ethics of Aristotle. Now to the ordinary undergraduate the Ethics are anything but pleasant reading, and each sentence contains a pitfall for the unwary. In fact here the best course is to learn by heart as much of the Ethics as is possible, for to most men this is the only way to insure success in the examination. A work which causes the greatest difficulty to the most intellectual, is not likely to prove an easy study to those who possess neither application nor ability. Under these circumstances an intelligent appreciation of the Ethics is impossible, and they will entail only a wearisome and useless labour. But we fear that there are few undergraduates who possess the qualifications necessary for offering a Modern Language. We shall, therefore, assume that the student will be obliged to take up the Ethics or Politics of Aristotle, or the Republic of Plato, together with some Greek or Latin Historian. It must cause wonder why a larger proportion of men do not prefer Plato to Aristotle, and we should certainly advise the student to adopt the former. The reason for the rejection of Plato is no doubt to be found in the fact that the Ethics have become a traditional element in the Final Schools, and are looked upon by a large number of Oxford Tutors as only second,

Modern Languages.

The Ethics a difficult book.

and sometimes superior, to the Bible itself. They themselves are so saturated with the Aristotelian Philosophy that they consider a man who prefers another work to the Ethics as guilty not only of a sin against taste, but of a flagrant transgression of a rule to which Oxford owes half her greatness. Despite this, we should advise the student to choose the Republic, for he will find it comparatively easy, and very pleasant reading. The Politics we do not recommend ; they are difficult, and without the numerous aids to study of which the Ethics can boast. In the Republic, too, he will not have the advantage of the elaborate apparatus for Aristotelian research which has been stored up by generations of Tutors, but he will find that it needs less those helps and notes which usually crowd editions of the Ethics, while it will be fairly remembered without recourse to a system of "memoria technica."

The Republic an easier book.

If however, as is generally the case, he choose the Ethics, his first work should be to secure a good edition and translation, for we presume that no man will be satisfied without the latter. The portions to be taken up (I.–IV., omitting I. 6, with X. 6–10) have been edited by Moore, and this edition will be found the most handy and generally useful, though it leaves much to be desired in several ways, and the notes are somewhat meagre. Chase's translation is on the whole good, and very literal ; a fault here in the right direction. It will be in every case necessary to attend a good lecture on the Ethics, for the assistance of Moore alone will certainly not be sufficient. There is no book which requires more oral explanation than the Ethics, and a simple illustration given by the Tutor

Ethics.

Notes and Translation.

Very careful study necessary.

will often throw more light on a difficulty than two pages of commentary. As we have elsewhere remarked, all Aristotle's sentences are pregnant with meaning, and every little word has a connexion with what precedes or follows which is often difficult to grasp. It is a book which it is impossible to be sure of knowing ; immediately one difficulty is mastered, another springs up to take its place, and even when the student has seemingly grasped the whole, an astute Examiner will dumbfound him by starting a question, before unseen, or clothing the argument in a new dress. Thus not only must the text be studied with great care, but copious indication and explanation of the difficulties are necessary. All the more important passages (*e.g.*, the Definition of the Virtues, the Division of the Soul, and the account of Deliberation and Moral Choice) must be carefully marked and perfectly learnt, for it is only by continually reading over the harder passages that they can be remembered. An interleaved text, with all the difficulties marked and explained, will be invaluable. An analysis should be carefully made by the student himself, not copied from some other book, and this will prove of immense assistance in understanding the coherence of the reasoning, which is often not at all patent to a careless reader. Some men, besides this, write out at length, in a note-book, all the difficulties and their explanation, with other matter, but this is generally only a word for word copy from some commentary, and will not repay the time and trouble exhausted. The best and only infallible method is to continually refer to these difficulties in the text, to note their context, and learn their explanation. It is won-

derful how by this the memory is refreshed, and the first difficulties disappear.

Of the Republic there is no suitable edition, but an excellent translation by Davies and Vaughan. Republic.

Here, as elsewhere, the student should work out former papers, by which means he is certain to meet in his own examination several questions with which he will be familiar.

With regard to the historical author, we advise the student to follow the usual course, and to choose the three last books of Herodotus. We think they will be found easier and pleasanter than Livy or Tacitus, which latter is decidedly difficult. Historian. Herodotus.

The student is expected to show an accurate acquaintance with the subject matter of Herodotus, and to be able to give a clear account of the evolutions of the rival armies and fleets. He will find it a useful practice to write out papers for his Tutor on such matters. With Herodotus he should read a short Greek History; Smith's Manual or Cox's General History will be sufficient for his wants. Rawlinson is the best English translation and Commentary, but is too elaborate for Pass-Men; Dawson Turner's Notes may be found useful.

There are still two subjects to be offered by the student, and he may choose from Political Economy, Law, Ancient History, Modern History, or Mathematics. Of these we recommend (but with diffidence) Political Economy, and the period of Modern History from 1517–1648; or, in the place of the latter, the outlines of Greek and Roman History. We certainly advise the student to take up Political Economy, for it is both interesting and useful. It is, perhaps, a subject hard to commence, but when Second Subject. Political Economy.

once the first stages have been passed, and the first maxims thoroughly grasped, the remainder should easily follow. Political Economy is to be read in Fawcett's Manual, and in Adam Smith, I., II. It will be found advisable to attend a lecture on this subject, for a clear exposition at first will save an immense amount of trouble afterwards. Many find it a useful plan to make an analysis of the whole in a note-book, though this too often degenerates into an unintelligent copy of the text-book.

Law. The branch of Legal Study is usually Stephen's Blackstone, II., part 1, though Justinian, Book II. (omitting Title 11), III., to Title 12, may be offered instead. We should certainly not advise the student to select this alternative. The subject of Law is full of technicalities difficult to master, and even when committed to memory quickly fading away. The student never knows when his subject is mastered ; new difficulties continually crop up, or incidentally present themselves. The books (in the case of the first alternative) are expensive, and often a further expense is entailed by the necessity of securing a "coach." And is the result worthy of the labour? Scarcely will it profit a professional lawyer—how much less the ordinary man. The statutes which are to be read are often obsolete, and therefore practically useless ; the labour is great, and the risk of failure is greater. Justinian does not present so many difficulties, but is open to the same objections in some measure. College Tutors generally dissuade men from adopting this subject of Law, and their opinion is certainly to be endorsed.

With any of the Modern Historical periods,

Political and Descriptive Geography must be offered.

Greek and Roman History.

If the student determines to offer the outlines of Greek and Roman History, he must not suppose that he has before him an easy task. The Examiners require here more accuracy than is generally supposed, and many men who enter the Schools after but a little study, are astonished at the searching nature of the questions set. The best and most interesting handbooks of Greek and Roman History are the General Histories of Cox and Merivale, though the Manuals of Smith and Liddell are very good and trustworthy. To refresh his memory before entering the Schools, the student should read over the smaller editions of the above books. He should also write papers frequently for his Tutor; and this, besides its immediate advantage, will increase his facility in writing his own language—a qualification most rare, and necessary for success in the Composition he must also offer. Dawson Turner's Analyses of Greek and Roman History are useful, and contain some very beautiful selections from authors not generally well known. It is necessary to pay great attention to Geography; and the student should never read Ancient History without an Atlas at his side. Kiepert's Atlas will be quite sufficient. Besides the outlines, he must take up a special period of Greek or Roman History, and we think he will do well to choose the Persian Wars. He will have become acquainted with this from Herodotus, VII.–IX., and may study them in Cox's "Greeks and Persians."

CHAPTER XI.

MODERATIONS—HONOUR.

AFTER "Smalls" have been passed, the student will be able to give his undivided attention to his Moderations work, some of which, we presume, he will already have studied for the former examination. He must now definitely settle his subjects, and his choice will no doubt be determined in great measure by the amount of work he has read at School. A considerable number of men who compete for Honours are acquainted with the greater portion of the work required, and are thus able to enter the Schools in a year and a half instead of two years. This, if they can do it without prejudice to their work, is an excellent plan, and allows them an extra six months for their Finals, where the additional time will prove of the greatest advantage. But in the majority of cases, we think the student will wait until his eighth Term—the utmost limit at which he may offer himself. This period will prove ample, and the work may easily be read over twice, and in some cases three times.

Choice of work.

Subjects of examination.

After these preliminary remarks, we will proceed to speak of the subjects to be offered. The following are the regulations with regard to the choice of subjects.

Necessary.

I. All candidates for Honours will be examined in the following subjects:—

1. Translation of unprepared passages, both Greek and Latin.

2. Latin Prose.

3. Greek and Latin authors to be selected from the list given below, and under the conditions published therewith. The minimum number which will be accepted of such authors is five.

Grammar questions, and questions directly bearing upon the contents, style, and literary history of the books offered, will be considered an integral portion of the examination.

II. Papers will also be set in the following subjects :—(1) Greek Prose, (2) Latin Verse, (3) Greek Verse. Optional.

4. The Elements of Comparative Philology, especially as applied to the illustration of Greek and Latin inflexions.

5. The History of the Greek Drama, with Aristotle's Poetics, excepting chapters xx. and xxv.; or, as an alternative, the General History of Roman Poetry to the end of the Augustan Age, with Horace, Epist. II. 1.

6. The Elements of Deductive Logic, with *either* Magrath's Selections from the Organon, 3–6, 22–33, 36–47, 50–53, 61–66, 68 and first paragraph of 69, 105–112, 118–127 (all these sections are inclusive); *or* such portions of Inductive Logic as are contained in Mill's Logic, Book III. i.–iv., vi.–viii., x.–xii., and xx.

Every candidate will have the opportunity of doing all these papers ; but deficiency in or omission of one or more of them will be no bar to the attainment of the highest Honours, if compensated by the quantity of the other work offered by the candidate, or the general excellence of his papers. Candidates are recommended to take up not more than two of the subjects numbered 4, 5, 6, and not

less than two if they omit any of the Composition Papers.

Authors. The following list of authors is proposed :—

GREEK.

1. *Homer*, four alternatives—Iliad, I.–XII., XIII.–XXIV.; Odyssey, I.–XII., XIII.–XXIV.

2. *Demosthenes.* De Coronâ.

3. *Æschylus.* The Trilogy, or any four plays including the Agamemnon.

4. *Sophocles.* Any three plays.

5. *Euripides.* Any four of the following plays: Bacchæ, Hippolytus, Ion, Iphigenia in Tauris, Medea, Phœnissæ.

6. *Aristophanes.* Any three of the following plays: Acharnenses, Aves, Equites, Nubes, Ranæ, Vespæ.

N.B.—A selection composed as follows will be accepted as representing two authors—viz.,

a. Two plays of Æschylus, including the Agamemnon.

b. Two plays of Sophocles.

c. Two of the above-named plays of Aristophanes, or three of the above-named plays of Euripides.

7. *Theocritus.*

8. *Pindar.* Olympian and Pythian Odes.

9. *Plato.* The Republic, Books I.–IV.

10. *Thucydides.* Books I., II., III., or II., III., IV.

LATIN.

11. *Virgil*, three alternatives—

a. Eclogues and Georgics with Æneid, I.–VI.

b. Eclogues and Georgics, with Æneid, VII.–XII.

c. The Æneid.

12. *Cicero*, three alternatives—

a. Philippics, I.–VII., with Part 5 of Watson's Select Epistles.

b. Pro Murena, Pro Cluentio, } with Part 1 of Watson's Select Epistles.

c. Pro Murena, Pro Sestio, } with Part 2 of Watson's Select Epistles.

13. *Horace.* The Odes, Carmen Sæculare, and Epodes, with either the Satires or the Epistles, Book I., together with the Ars Poetica.

14. *Juvenal* (omitting Satires 2, 6, 9), with either *Persius* or one book of the Satires of Horace.

15. *Propertius*, with the Selections from *Catullus* published by the University Press.

16. *Plautus.* Any four of the following plays: Amphitruo, Aulularia, Captivi, Menæchmi, Miles Gloriosus, Mostellaria, Rudens, Trinummus.

For two of the four, any four plays of *Terence* may be substituted.

17. *Lucretius.* Books I., II., III., V.

18. *Tacitus.* Annals, Books I.–IV.

19. *Livy.* Books II.–V.

N.B.—(1.) All candidates for Honours must offer the following authors: (1) *Homer*, (2) *Demosthenes*, (3) *Virgil*, (4) *Cicero.*

(2.) If a candidate offers more than five books, one of them must be a Greek dramatist.

(3.) The number of Greek and Latin authors offered must be as nearly as possible equal.

(4.) If two Greek dramatists are offered, one of the two must be either Æschylus or Sophocles.

We shall discuss the necessary subjects in the order given above, and thence proceed to offer some advice on the optional subjects.

Holy Gospels. It must be understood that the Gospels (or the matter substituted) are in reality a Pass subject, with which, though the Moderators must be satisfied before taking a degree, the distribution of Honours is not concerned. Most men will have read them at School, and as they are not difficult (with the exception of some portions of S. John) too much time need not be devoted to them. The student must of course make sure of his knowledge, and the subject-matter may easily be learnt from Maclear's Class-Book of New Testament History.

Unseen Translation. I. On Unprepared Translation we have spoken in Chapter VIII., and in addition to our advice there we will only recommend the student to continue his practice here as in Composition.

Latin Prose. II. With regard to Latin Prose we can only refer to the suggestions we offered on the subject in the same chapter. It is almost needless to insist on the great importance attached to excellence in this, and the consequent necessity for the student to carefully keep up his Latin Prose. The man who has gained a Scholarship will usually find himself, supposing he has not neglected his work, equal to the standard required in Moderations. We cannot overrate the assistance a good Tutor may afford here, where especially oral instruction is most valuable.

Greek and Latin authors. III. We have now to remark on the most important branch of the examination, the books to be offered. It is here that a man's scholarship is most clearly shown, and the benefits of a good

School education most conspicuous. It is impossible to over-estimate the advantage of an accurate and close study of the Greek and Latin Classics at School, for here indubitably are laid the foundations of future success or failure. The man who has accustomed himself to a slovenly study of Sophocles or Virgil, will find it very difficult, almost impossible, to attain to a proper method in reading his Moderations work, and here such a method is as indispensable as in reading for Scholarships. The closest attention to every word and phrase, a determination to understand every difficult construction, a conscientious search for an adequate rendering, and an exercise of self-denial in reading only a few commentaries, are as neces sary here, perhaps more so, as in the previous study. It is, of course, most necessary to attain to a graceful and idiomatic method of translation. Now, as the power to translate in this manner is rarely a natural gift, and to be perfected needs incessant practice, the student will do well to take every opportunity of translating his authors to a Tutor or competent friend, or to translate carefully on paper such passages as seem of exceptional difficulty, or may have been selected by his Tutor for that purpose. It is certain that an appreciative acquaintance with the great English poets and prose-writers will prove of immense assistance in acquiring an ability of rendering Greek and Latin into good English. It is, of course, only possible to acquire a large vocabulary by wide reading, and a nice appreciation of different shades of meaning, in reading and translating the Classics so important a qualification, is greatly promoted by an attentive study of the splendid works of the

Accuracy indispensable.

Much practice needed.

Good English style formed by wide reading.

English language. It is natural that the rendering of a man who has no further acquaintance with his native tongue than may be gained in ordinary conversation, must be bald, vulgar, and feeble, whereas he whose mind is saturated with, or even influenced by, the great models of English prose and poetry, will always possess a large supply of words and phrases, from which he may easily select one suitable to the passage in hand. It is often a difficult matter to choose between a phrase, elegant or picturesque, but scarcely answering to the corresponding Latin or Greek, and one which, if somewhat rough, more faithfully follows the original. When such a difficulty occurs it is, on the whole, preferable to choose the latter. Examiners will always place more value on a translation which is evidently the work of a mind that has grasped each point correctly, than on one which, though more showy and florid, is not equally the result of careful and conscientious study.

Faithful translation necessary.

Aims to be kept in view.

It should be remembered that there are set long passages to translate only, and short passages to translate and comment upon. In these comments the student is required to explain the construction, to give all the various meanings to be extracted from a passage, to note any difference of reading, and to illustrate the passage by showing his knowledge of the context, or by giving parallel passages from his other books. He must, therefore, read his work with two ends in view—elegance and correctness to be attained in the long translation, and accurate scholarship to be shown in the detached passages.

Textual criticism.

It may be noticed that in Moderations work attention to the text, and a collation of the most

important readings is never useless, and often of the highest advantage in the Schools. We do not mean that the student should plunge deeply into textual criticism, but he should always be able to offer remarks on any passage where the reading is disputed. The use of interleaved books is here of great advantage, more especially where there is no one commentary which renders unnecessary the use of all others. The most important interpretations of the various commentators may be briefly noted down, and a laborious reference at the second reading to multifarious works is hereby spared. In a book like Conington's Virgil it may be well to note the more important points with pencil marks—*e.g.*, various readings in blue, parallel passages in red, &c. If this plan is not overdone, it will be useful, and enable the student, at the last reading, to see at a glance all that is most valuable.

Interleaved books.

As a rule lectures in Moderations on the books do not afford much help, for commentaries are generally so numerous and excellent that the lecturer has little to add. On the special subjects, however, they are indispensable.

Lectures.

Further remarks on the books we shall postpone until they are discussed separately.

The student will notice that he is required to offer not less than five books, four of which must be Homer, Demosthenes, Virgil, and Cicero. Generally the number taken up is eight, and less than this it is unadvisable to offer. Nor should it be exceeded, for only four papers are set in the books :—viz., (1) Homer and Cicero ; (2) Virgil and Demosthenes ; (3) Extra Latin Books ; (4) Extra Greek Books ; and it impossible to write satisfactorily on more than two books in the three

Number of authors necessary ; need not exceed eight.

Necessary books.

hours allotted to each paper. More than eight books, then, the student is not expected to take up, and practically this is the regulation number, which we shall assume the student will offer.

Remarks on authors.

We shall now proceed to discuss the four necessary books, Homer, Demosthenes, Virgil, and Cicero. Before we recommend the choice of particular books or portions of books, we will remark that such a decision is very difficult and has often been given with the greatest diffidence, and we fear that neither our arguments nor conclusions will commend themselves to all.

Definite advice difficult.

Homer.

In the first place, then, of Homer there are four alternatives; Iliad, I.–XII; XIII.–XXIV. Odyssey, I.–XII.; XIII.–XXIV. We feel great difficulty in giving advice on this point, as there are good arguments for or against each alternative. If we recommend the first portion of the Odyssey it is because we believe it to be somewhat easier than the Iliad, and that on the first twelve books the student will experience the advantage of excellent commentaries. This first portion has been edited by Merry and Riddell, and by Dr. Hayman, and either edition will prove of great assistance. There is a smaller edition by Merry, which will prove sufficient, if time be short. We trust the student will not adopt the common but very erroneous opinion that Homer is an easy author. No doubt a large proportion of the books are not difficult, but often there occur passages which will tax severely his ingenuity of explanation, and where the connexion of thought is hard to follow. There are also a large number of strange words which he should carefully commit to memory. We do not deny that he will probably be found less difficult than

Odyssey.

Homer not excessively easy.

any other book the student may offer, but men should guard against trusting too much to this. No Classic can be called easy to us, who live at such a distance of time, and in such an utterly different atmosphere, intellectual and social.

For the explanation of some Homeric questions the student may be referred to Gladstone's "Juventus Mundi."

Iliad. If the student prefers to offer a part of the Iliad, we should recommend the first twelve books as more interesting, though the excellences of either portion fairly balance each other. By far the best edition in English of the Iliad is that by Paley.

Aids to translation. Some very useful hints on translating Homer will be found in Matthew Arnold's work "On translating Homer," and great advantage may be derived from a reference to Pope's translation, which, though far from accurate, is instinct with the beauty and fire of the original.

Demosthenes. Next on our list is the "De Coronâ" of Demosthenes. The best edition of this oration is that by Holmes, which will be found quite sufficient. That of Messrs. Simcox is also good, more especially in the introductions. The explanation of the various technical law phrases must be thoroughly studied in the Dictionary of Antiquities, and a knowledge of the political state of Greece at the time of Philip's conquests is essential.

Virgil. Of Virgil there are three alternatives, Ecl. and Georg. with Æn. I.-VI.; Ecl. and Georg. with Æn. VII.-XII.; or the Æneid. Here again it is difficult to give definite advice as to the choice of alternatives. In favour of the first two it may be said that by offering them greater variety and a

Choice of alternatives.

more comprehensive view of the author are acquired ; while it is argued that by taking up the Æneid a complete poem is gained, nor is the author robbed of his symmetry. We are inclined to think that the first alternative is the most preferable, as the student thus gains an acquaintance with the Georgics, Virgil's true masterpiece, while he avoids also the last six books of the Æneid, which, with their long details of battles, are very tedious to many minds. Moreover, by choosing this alternative the student will save himself nearly 2000 lines,* certainly no small advantage.

Conington. He will probably find all the assistance he requires in Conington's edition. This is an excellent and most useful commentary, and being the work of a man with some poetic pretensions is quite appreciative of the grace and beauty of the Roman poet. Its only drawback, to our mind, is the editor's vacillation in cases where the interpretation is uncertain, and his want of firmness in deciding questions. But this of course is merely a cause of irritation, not of actual error, and perhaps shows that it is impossible to settle definitely such questions. The notes of Forbiger contain a quantity of useful matter, and the translation by

Translations. Lee and Lonsdale is excellent. Of verse translations that of Dryden is the best, if perhaps somewhat rough ; while those of W. Morris and Conington are very good. One by C. R. Kennedy is comparatively unknown, but is worthy of perusal.

Aids. In reading Virgil the doubtful readings should

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* The Georg. Ecl. and Æn. I.–VI. contain 7755 lines ; Georg. Ecl. and Æn. VII.–XII., 8140 lines ; and the Æneid, 9875 lines. This is a rough estimate, tolerably correct.

be carefully noticed. Nettleship's introduction to the study of the Æneid is useful; and Sellar's Virgil, though lengthy, will repay perusal.

Cicero. Of Cicero there are also three alternatives— Philippics I.–VII., and Part 5 of Select Letters; Pro Murena et Pro Cluentio and Part 1 of Letters; and Pro Murena et Pro Sestio and Part 2 of Letters. The student will probably be here, too, embarrassed in his choice. We think that by choosing the first alternative he will gain a period more interesting, and perhaps more important from an historical point of view. But for real scholarship the second or third alternatives present greater advantages. We have recommended the Pro Murena to candidates for Scholarships, and if the Student has in view solely pure Latinity, he will do well to choose the Pro Murena with either the Pro Cluentio or Pro Sestio, and the corresponding portions of the Select Letters.

Alternatives.

"Pro Murena."

Editions. There is no good English edition of the Pro Murena, but the student who can read German will derive great advantage from Halm's excellent notes. This scholar has edited several other orations, and his notes to the second Philippic have been adapted by J. E. B. Mayor in an edition which will prove very useful to those who offer this period. The Philippics are generally read in King's excellent edition, and Ramsay's Pro Cluentio is a useful work. Long's edition of Cicero's orations does not reach a very high standard of scholarship, but is valuable on points of Roman Law. Whichever of these alternatives the student chooses he must pay great attention to the corresponding portion of the Select Letters. We have commented on this selection elsewhere, and here we will only say that

"The Select Letters."

both matter and style present very many difficulties, where the memory is likely to fail unless the book is read several times with great care.

Optional books. These then are the four books which all must offer, and we will now proceed to speak of the four remaining books the student will offer, of

Greek dramatists. which two should be Latin and two Greek. And first as to the Greek books. Of these one must be a Greek dramatist, and we shall scarcely err

Sophocles. in advising the student to select three plays of Sophocles, whose works are not only pre-eminently grand, but also offer a wide field for the display of accurate scholarship. The student will probably and wisely choose those plays he has read at

Choice of plays. school or lately. We think the Antigone should be offered, and the excellent notes of Professor Jebb to the Ajax and Electra will dispose many to the choice of those plays. On the other hand the Œdipus Rex and Œdipus Coloneus have claims

Editions. of a higher moral grandeur. Should they be chosen with the Antigone, the three plays may be studied in Professor Campbell's edition, of which the introductions are good and the notes useful, though not commanding the entire confidence of all good scholars. The "Trachiniæ" has been edited with short notes by Campbell and Abbott,

Collation of texts advisable. and by Pretor. The text of Sophocles used in the Schools is that of Campbell, and careful attention should be paid to the various readings. A fair acquaintance with these carries, as we said, great weight, and will be promoted by collating the text of Campbell with that of Dindorf.

Æschylus and Euripedes. If Æschylus or Euripides be chosen, Paley's editions are by far the best. The student must, however, be on his guard against the editor's

frequently eccentric explanations and alterations of the text. He should here always refer to Dindorf's text, the one used in the Schools.

Notes on reading the dramatists.

In reading a Greek dramatist the student must be careful not only to choose the most exact and expressive rendering of the text, but also to pay great attention to the various irregular constructions, of which he should always seek the explanation in his book of Syntax. In reading a Greek dramatist there is a large scope for the display of poetic gifts (which must, however, not be allowed too much liberty) and of accurate scholarship. The student will find the ideal of a good style in Mr. Swinburne's beautiful poems, "Atalanta in Calydon" and "Erectheus." To translate the choruses on paper will materially assist the attainment of such a style.

Second Greek author, Thucydides, very important.

The second Greek author we think should be Thucydides. It is almost impossible to overstate the importance of an accurate knowledge of this difficult author, in fact without such a knowledge an intelligent study of the Greek language is impossible. Moreover, the student will find an acquaintance with the three Moderation books a material advantage in reading for Literæ Humaniores. We advise the selection of the first three books, as we consider the symmetry and interest of an author to be destroyed by plunging at once into the middle of his work. In Thucydides an interleaved copy of Bekker's text (or a special note-book) is indispensable. The commentaries are very numerous, and as each contains something valuable, it is necessary to make at once a selection of the most useful notes, and thus avoid the necessity of re-reading the various works, a labour

Mischievous to read too many commentaries.

for which the student will usually ill spare the time.

Editions. For the study of Thucydides, if the first three books be taken up, the notes of Sheppard and Evans will be found useful. There is in them a great mass of information, partly, perhaps, useless and ill-digested, but to a discriminating student capable of affording much assistance. Arnold's edition is for Moderations not of much use, as its best point, the historical and geographical notes, bear more upon "Greats" work. Poppo's Commentary (editio minor) is the best, and will be found very useful.

Mr. Shilleto has unfortunately left only the first book annotated, but his edition is a very brilliant and scholarly work, and should be carefully studied. To those who can read German we strongly recommend Krüger's commentary.

Grote's "Greece." Side by side with Thucydides Grote's History may be read. It is of course an invaluable commentary, though on some points his purely critical remarks are apt to lead the student astray.

Translations. There is no good translation of Thucydides, that of Crawley being the best. The speeches have been rendered in a pleasant but too flowery manner by Wilkins.

Syntax of Thucydides. It is almost unnecessary to insist upon the importance of carefully studying the Syntax of Thucydides. There is no good Thucydidean Syntax, and the student will do well to frame a short one for himself.

Other alternatives. In place of the books recommended the student may choose from Æschylus, Euripides, Aristophanes, Theocritus, Pindar, or Plato. The least choiceworthy of these, we think, are Theocritus

and Pindar; and the one to be studied with the greatest advantage, though we speak with great diffidence, we consider to be Plato. Theocritus is interesting, and important for his influence on Virgil, and Pindar is very grand, but these authors are not very suitable for Moderations work. With regard to Plato, besides his eloquence and grandeur of thought, his style is exquisite and very valuable for Composition. If the student intends to seek Final Classical Honours a preliminary knowledge of Plato will be very useful. There is no good commentary on the Republic, but a very good translation by Davies and Vaughan. Jowett's Plato is not adapted for Moderations study. Aristophanes is, of course, a most interesting author, and very useful for an appreciation of Greek political and domestic life, but scarcely so for pure scholarship. Of this author we think the "Acharnians," the "Knights," and the "Wasps" are the best plays. Aristophanes has been well translated by J. H. Frere, and partly edited by Paley.

Theocritus.

Pindar.

Plato.

Aristophanes.

With regard to the other two dramatists we consider Æschylus preferable to Euripides for Moderations work. The student must remember that the excellence of authors is measured here chiefly with regard to their importance in matters of pure scholarship. If in an author this qualification is found united to great interest or splendid diction, that author should certainly be chosen. We think such a union does occur in the case of Plato, Sophocles, and Thucydides, especially in the two latter, and therefore advise their adoption.

Point of view from which to regard an author.

When we come to remark on the selection of the two Latin books our task is somewhat more

Latin books.

Choice difficult. difficult. There is no author whose style is so valuable for Latin Scholarship as Sophocles and Thucydides are for Greek. The most difficult, and the one most likely to test hard reading and accurate scholarship, is Horace. This author is the one most men would select at first sight, not only for his general interest, but because they have probably paid most attention to him at School. But we believe that many men soon come to repent of their hasty decision. Horace is in truth a most difficult author, and his curious constructions and tricks of expression, which require a syntax to themselves, are enough to render an accurate study very laborious. Moreover, in the Odes especially, the connexion of thought in many passages is extremely hard to follow, and this difficulty is aggravated by the diffuse comments of so many able expositors. Horace is an author whom it is impossible to be certain of knowing; his general beauty makes a lasting impression on the mind, and his exquisite and happy phrases cling to the memory, but when a scientific examination and explanation of these phrases are required only a very good and accurate scholar will appear to great advantage. However, if he be chosen, the student should take up the Odes, Carmen Sæculare, and Epodes, with Epistles I. and "De Arte Poetica," in preference, we think, to the Satires. Orelli's edition is superior to all others in point of scholarship and taste, and of English editions Wickham's is by far the best. The latter, however, does not at present extend beyond the Epodes, and Horace's other works may be read in Macleane if the student objects to the Latin notes of Orelli. The verse translation of Theodore

Horace an exceedingly difficult author.

Causes.

Editions.

Martin fairly does justice to the "curiosa felicitas" of Horace.

Points to be noticed.

The student should especially notice (and insert in his note-book) Horace's use of cases and Græcisms, and study carefully the connexion of thought in the Odes. It is very difficult to translate this author into English which can convey a tithe of his elegance and wit, and the student must never rest content with a bald rendering, for here above all do the Examiners require grace and correctness.

Juvenal. Editions.

If the student determines upon Juvenal he will have a good guide in Mayor, whose edition is a wonderful storehouse of learning, the notes too long certainly, but full of interest. We fear few students will find time to read all the notes in the second edition, and we should advise them to procure, if possible, the first edition. The second edition requires a most careful thinning, a task to which few men are equal, and for which Tutors have generally no time. Macleane's Commentary is good in parts, but somewhat antiquated, and Simcox's Juvenal is an eccentric but suggestive little work.

Persius.

With Juvenal may be read either a book of Horace's Satires or Persius. We should recommend the Satires in preference to Persius, as the latter is decidedly difficult. The second book of the Satires is, we think, the one to be chosen.

Of Persius there is an excellent and scholarly edition by the late Prof. Conington, and a useful one by Pretor.

Catullus.

We believe that Catullus is coming much into favour at Oxford, and is receiving an amount of attention which is certainly his due. For Mode-

rations he is read with Propertius, whose Elegies
Editions. are, however, less useful and interesting. Mr. Ellis has recently published a Commentary on Catullus, which is a work of the highest scholarship; and Mr. Munro has written some "Elucidations of Catullus," which will be useful. There is an excellent edition of Propertius by Paley.

Plautus. Plautus we should not advise any one to offer, as being decidedly less useful than any other of
Editions. the authors. If he be selected we recommend the Aulularia, Trinummus, and Menæchmi, to be read in Wagner's edition, and the Mostellaria, with Ramsay's excellent notes.

Terence. Terence is far preferable to Plautus, both in point of interest and scholarship. He has been admirably edited by Wagner.

Lucretius. Lucretius is, we believe, a "safe" author, and has been edited by Munro in a manner which reflects the highest credit on English scholarship. From this edition a vast amount of classical knowledge may be acquired. The scientific and philosophical arguments will, no doubt, deter many students, but Lucretius is an interesting author, abounding in noble passages, and well repays the study which is not often devoted to him. He has been well translated also by Munro.

Tacitus valuable. It is very desirable that some Tacitus should be read at some time, as he is invaluable for Latin Composition and Scholarship. Of the Annals four books may be offered, which may be read in
Style of Tacitus. Frost's edition. A useful introduction on the style of Tacitus (adapted from Bœtticher) may be found in Wilkins' Manual of Latin Prose, and in Dr. Smith's edition of the first book. The Annals

have been admirably translated by Church and Brodribb.

Of Livy, Books II.–V. may be offered. This author is, of course, useful for Latin Composition, but not (we think) otherwise. There is, unfortunately, no good English edition of Livy. Livy.

We have now mentioned all the Latin authors on the list, and we hope the student will be assisted in his selection by our remarks. We think, on the whole, that he will not be wrong in choosing Juvenal and Tacitus. Both are very useful for the work in hand, and few will deny their interest—of Juvenal especially. We feel, however, that there is much to be said for the others also, and our judgment will, doubtless, not approve itself to the universal taste. At all events, the student will not do himself any injury by offering these authors, and we are inclined to think he will not have reason to repent of his choice. Juvenal and Tacitus choiceworthy.

II. We have now considered the necessary subjects and the books which the student should offer. It remains to give some hints on the optional subjects. Optional subjects.

First of all the student will notice that he is advised not to take up more than two of the subjects, 4, 5, 6, and not less than two if he omit any of the Composition papers.

Of Greek Prose and Latin and Greek Verse we have already spoken in Chapter VIII., and here we shall only discuss Philology, Greek Drama (or Roman Poetry), and Logic. If two of these be taken up we should advise the choice of Philology and Logic. The first mentioned has now become a science, an acquaintance with which is quite in- Greek Prose. Latin and Greek Verse. Philology and Logic indispensable.

dispensable to one with any pretentions to scholarship. The merits of Logic it is needless to dwell upon.

Philology. First, then, as to Philology. The student will probably find that the greater portion of the Philology required may be gained from Peile's Text-books. excellent work. Occasional reference may also be made to Max Müller's Lectures, but probably he will not find sufficient time to read that most interesting and able work. A handbook of Comparative Philology has been published by Mr. Papillon, and will afford some assistance, collecting as it does, within a moderate compass, the results of the researches of the most eminent Necessity of Lectures. philologists. He will find a good lecture an immense, in fact indispensable, assistance on this subject, and his Tutor will, no doubt, give him any further advice as to the books to be read. He should notice that the subject is "the Elements of Comparative Philology, especially as applied to Deep research not needed. the illustration of Greek and Latin inflexions." If he keeps this in mind he will save himself much useless study. If he attempts to plunge deeply into philological questions he will quickly spoil his chances of success by losing himself in the discussions of questions which are at present insoluble. It will be found very useful to learn up all the Sanscrit case and tense formations, with some few words to illustrate them. This plan certainly savours somewhat of "cram," but it will "pay" in the Schools.

Greek Drama and Roman Poetry. The choice between the Greek Drama and Roman Poetry is a difficult one to make. A knowledge of the history of both is useful, in fact almost essential for the proper study of the authors

offered. We think it will be found best to select the history of Roman Poetry to the end of the Augustan Age (with Horace, Epist. II. i.) as more interesting (though not more useful) and connected with an easier book than the Poetics of Aristotle.

Roman Poetry and Literature.

For the history of Roman Poetry there are several books which will prove useful. The Roman Literature of Teuffel has been translated, and is full of matter, but chiefly bibliographical. Cruttwell's Roman Literature will be found quite sufficient, if supplemented on some points by such works as Sellar's "Roman Poets of the Republic," and "Roman Poets of the Augustan Age."

Greek Drama and Literature.

If the Greek Drama is selected, the Poetics will demand close attention, and Aristotle's criticisms and definitions should be carefully learnt. Donaldson's "Theatre of the Greeks" will here prove of great assistance, and Müller's Greek Literature is a trustworthy work. Pleasant criticisms on the Greek dramatists will be found in Symond's "Greek Poets."

Logic.

Lecture necessary.

We now come to Logic, and on this, probably a new subject, is a good lecture indispensable, where one may hear the various and conflicting views on Logical questions stated and examined. An experienced lecturer will always furnish several hints not found in the text-books, but which may furnish the answers to several questions in the Schools. A lecture must not, however, dispense with the use of text-books, and the student should read Fowler's Deductive Logic, a short clear work, and possibly some of Jevon's Elementary Lessons, which are very lucid and interesting. The Logic required for Honours is naturally of a much higher character than that offered at the Pass Examina-

Deduction.

Text-books.

tion. Here the various technical exercises which tax the memory or the ingenuity of the Pass-man are postponed to those which call his reflective faculties into play. But the student must not entirely neglect the syllogistic portion, as it is quite a necessary foundation of Logical knowledge.

Mill's Logic. After Fowler has been read, the student should, if he has sufficient time, take in hand Mill and read Bk. I., II. 1–3, giving special attention to I. 5, and II. 3. At all events he should read Mill's remarks on the import of Propositions, the function of the

Analysis. Syllogism, and the Categories. Killick's Analysis of the Logic will be found useful, but the student should certainly analyse his Mill himself.

Mansel. There are several notes in the appendix to Mansel's Aldrich which will well repay reading.

Induction preferable to the "Organon." In addition to the Deductive Logic, which we have just discussed, the student must offer either portions of Mill's Inductive Logic, or portions of Magrath's Selection from the "Organon" of Aristotle. A knowledge of both will be very useful in reading for Literæ Humaniores, but, of the two, we think that the Induction will be found less difficult and more interesting. Aristotle is very hard to those who attack him for the first time, and he may well be postponed till the Final Schools.

Conclusion. We have now concluded our remarks on the selection of books and subjects. It is impossible to speak very definitely on this matter, as the wants or tastes of different men vary in a wonderful degree. We can only hope to have guided men in their choice, and we think that, if they follow our suggestions, they will have made as advantageous a selection as is possible under the circumstances.

CHAPTER XII.

MATHEMATICAL SCHOOLS.

IN speaking of these Schools our treatment will be far less lengthy than in the case of the other examinations. The remarks which we might make on the various books, and the hints as to their study, must be left in a great measure to the man's Tutor. It is in the Mathematical Schools especially that the assistance of this personage is valuable, and the success of the student will be found to depend very much upon his care and skill. If the latter qualities are found in the Tutor, the necessity for a private "coach" may be dispensed with. The latter will only be necessary if the College Tutor has not sufficient time to devote to his pupils.

Value of a good Tutor.

Moderations.

The only lectures required for Moderations are those of a man's College Tutor, which he must attend, as they always form part of his system of study, and the lectures delivered by the Savilian Professor of Geometry on Pure Geometry. This Professor has lectures on many other subjects, from which much useful information is to be derived, but those we have mentioned are especially valuable, and should be missed on no account.

Math. "Mods."

Lectures.

The following is the list of subjects for examination—

Subjects.

1. Algebra and the Theory of Equations.
2. Trigonometry, Plane and Spherical.

3. Plane Geometry, including the Conic Sections, treated both geometrically and analytically.

4. Geometry of Three Dimensions, including the straight line, plane, and sphere, treated both geometrically and analytically, and the surfaces of the second order referred to their principal axes.

5. The Differential Calculus, including its applications to plane geometry; and to the determination of tangents and normals to surfaces and lines in space.

6. The Integration of Differential Expressions, with Geometrical applications.

7. The Elements of the Calculus of Finite Differences.

Papers set. These, then, are the subjects; but we shall not discuss them in the above order, considering it a more practical method to treat of the papers as they are actually set. These are as follows :—

1. *Algebra.*

2. *Trigonometry and Theory of Equations.*

3. *Geometry.* This includes Euclid, with riders; Geometrical Conic Sections; the solid Geometry of the plane and sphere (also the cone and cylinder); Modern Geometry (especially Harmonic and Anharmonic Ratio, Pole and Polar, Involution, &c.); and the new Geometric Methods of Projection and Reciprocation.

4. *Algebraic Geometry* (Analytical Conic Sections).

5. *Differential Calculus* (with its application to plane curves).

6. *Integral Calculus* (*i.e.*, the integration of expressions between finite limits, and its application to the areas of surfaces, and the volumes of solids), together with—

(*a.*) Algebraic Geometry of Three Dimensions.

(*b.*) The Integration of Differential Equations.

(*c.*) The Elements of the Calculus of Finite Differences, with its application to the summation of series.

7. General Problems.

Probably the student, on commencing to read for the Mathematical Schools, will find himself unacquainted with many subjects of pure Mathematics. For the Moderations Examination includes all pure Mathematics, though it does not reach to the utmost limits of all the subjects to be taken up. Thus the Integral Calculus required stops before arriving at the Calculus of Variations, and the Geometry of Three Dimensions. Finite Differences, too, are not wholly included.

Algebra.

1. Algebra. The whole of Todhunter's larger Algebra should be read, and the student should be able to write out any piece of book-work in the whole work. The importance of book-work cannot be over-estimated. It must, of course, go hand in hand with the solution of problems, but the former is the proof of genuine reading, while the latter is more an indication of quickness and intelligence. It is a good plan to keep a note-book with a complete table of the book-work the student has to read, so that he may be able to test his knowledge at any time. In Algebra, the chapters on Continued Fractions, and their application to the solution of Indeterminate Equations, require hard study, as do the chapters on the Summation of Series. The importance of the chapters on the Theory of Numbers, and on Probability, cannot be over-estimated. A branch of Algebra, not included in Todhunter, will probably be new to the student—

Book-work.

i.e., the Theory of Determinants. The best explanation of this is to be found in Price's Trilinear Co-ordinates, for its great importance lies in its application to Conic Sections.

Besides Todhunter, Wood's Algebra may often be referred to with advantage.

Trigonometry and Theory of Equations.

2. Trigonometry and Theory of Equations. Of Plane Trigonometry, the student will probably know sufficient. Frequent examples of Trigonometrical series must be worked. In Spherical Trigonometry the important chapter in Todhunter is that on the relations between sides and angles of a triangle. Todhunter's Trigonometry is the best text-book, and is quite sufficient.

For the Theory of Equations, Todhunter's Treatise on that subject must be read.

Geometry.

3. Geometry. Very possibly much of this subject will be new to the student. Euclid and Geometrical Conics he will be acquainted with. Modern Geometry he will learn by attending the Lectures of the Savilian Professor. There is no really good text-book in English on this subject, but if the student does not object to French, Housel's "Introduction à la Géométrie Supérieure" is a first-rate book. Solid Geometry is to be learnt from various sources; little is required. The Plane is sufficiently treated in Euclid, Book XI. The Sphere he will find discussed to some extent in the opening chapters of Todhunter's Spherical Trigonometry. Projection and Reciprocation are to be found at the end of Salmon's Analytical Conic Sections. For Geometric Conic Sections the works either of Drew, Taylor, or Besant may be recommended. The latter two treat this subject

very fully: the greater portion of the subjects of this paper will be found in Besant.

Algeb. Geometry.

4. Algebraical Geometry. Todhunter is here somewhat heavy, but must be read first. Salmon's Conic Sections is the all-sufficient work, and will be found highly interesting, though very lengthy and full of matter, and requiring the most concentrated attention. Puckle's Conic Sections is a very useful small work on the same plan. The student must also read Price's Trilinear Co-ordinates.

Differ. Calculus.

5. Differential Calculus. This is by far the most difficult subject. Many men think they have mastered it when totally ignorant of its first principles, and when they awake from their pleasant delusion, are proportionately astonished. Let us hope this awaking may not be on the day when the student has his Moderations paper before him. Todhunter is here very good, as is also Williamson, and both should be read. But Price (Infinitesimal Calculus, vol. i.) is the expounder and illustrator of first principles. Book-work, in this subject, is of great importance; and the same may be said of curve-tracing. The application of the Calculus to curves is the easier half of the subject, and by far the more interesting, but it requires an enormous amount of careful attention.

Integr. Calculus.

6. Integral Calculus. In this Todhunter is the text-book, and should be read as far as Chapter 8. In studying this subject the student must not consider Integration as simply the reverse of Differentiation, but he must keep before his eyes constantly the idea of Summation of an infinite number of infinitely small terms, which is the true basis of this Calculus.

(*a.*) In Geometry of Three Dimensions the straight line and plane are the subjects most required. The Equation of the Second Degree is a hard subject, which will not repay much study. But the determination of Tangents and Normals to Curves and Surfaces of the Second Degree is a subject specially set, and must be studied. A lecture here is almost indispensable.

For this subject the first ten chapters of Aldis's Solid Geometry must be read, and Todhunter's Examples should be worked out. Salmon's Geometry of Three Dimensions should be referred to, but is too long for a thorough perusal.

(*b* and *c.*) For these subjects Boole's Differential Equations (Chapters 1–5, 7, 9, 11) and Finite Differences (Chapters 1, 2, 4, 9, 11) should be read, though often this may be obviated by a few hours' "coaching" with the Tutor.

Most important subjects.

These, then, are the subjects of examination, and the books to be read in each case. All are important, and demand close attention. It is generally said that Salmon's Conic Sections especially repay the study devoted to them, and that a large proportion of marks are awarded for accuracy in tracing one or two curves.

Problems to be worked out.

It will be found an excellent plan to work through the previous examination papers, and the importance of being able to solve problems readily cannot be over-estimated. To gain facility in this we may advise the student to work out Wolstenholme's Book of Mathematical Problems, where special attention should be paid to the Problems on Conics.

MATHEMATICAL FINAL SCHOOLS.

Math. Finals.

The following is the Syllabus of the subjects in which candidates will be examined :—

Pure Mathematics.

Subjects.

1. Algebra.
2. Trigonometry, plane and spherical.
3. Geometry of two and three dimensions.
4. Differential Calculus.
5. Integral Calculus.
6. Calculus of Variations.
7. Calculus of Finite Differences.
8. Theory of Chances.

Mixed Mathematics.

1. Mechanics of Solid and Fluid Bodies.
2. Optics, Geometrical and Physical.
3. Newton's Principia, Sections I., II., III., and parts of IX. and XI.
4. Astronomy, including the more elementary parts of the Lunar and Planetary Theories.

The following are the Papers set, to which we append some few suggestions :— Papers set.

I. Elementary Algebra, Trigonometry, and Theory of Equations. Algebra, &c.

II. Elementary Geometry, including Euclid (I.–IV., VI., XI.) and Conic Sections, geometrically as well as analytically treated. Geometry, &c.

These two papers are of an elementary nature, and will be cleared by most men who expect high Honours. This of course depends upon the ability of the student to work quickly as well as correctly, and for this much practice is needed. Both elementary.

For these subjects the books read for Moderations will be sufficient.

Elementary Mechanics.

III. Elementary Mechanics of Solid and Fluid Bodies.

For this should be read Todhunter's Mechanics for Beginners and Besant's Elementary Hydrostatics.

In the above Papers the student must beware of using the Differential Calculus, for the object of the Examiners is to ascertain whether the student understands the first principles of the subject.

Higher Algebra, &c.

IV. Algebra, Trigonometry (plane and spherical), and Theory of Equations, with the Theory of Determinants.

In all but the last subject the books used for Moderations are sufficient. A good Tutor will often make it unnecessary to read any books on the Theory of Determinants, and as a rule they are somewhat heavy. However, Salmon's Higher Algebra and Todhunter's Theory of Equations (Chapters 25–27) may be consulted.

Geometry.

V. Geometry.

This includes all the matter of Papers III. and IV. in Moderations, and in addition Solid Geometry. For this Aldis's Solid Geometry should be found sufficient; if not, Salmon's Geometry of Three Dimensions is an exhaustive treatise. A good Tutor will supply all that is required beyond Aldis.

Differ Calculus.

VI. Differential Calculus, including the higher parts of Solid Geometry.

On this we need only refer to the remarks on the same subject in Moderations.

Integr. Calculus, &c.

VII. Integral Calculus, including Calculus of Variations, Calculus of Finite Differences, Differential Equations, and sometimes a few questions on Solid Geometry.

For these subjects the student must read Todhunter's Integral Calculus, Boole's Finite Differences (Chapters 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, 11), Boole's Differential Equations (Chapters 1–16).

Differ. Equations.

A knowledge of Differential Equations is very important, and a thorough acquaintance with Definite Integrals carries great weight. The lectures of the Professor of Geometry on Definite Integrals and the Calculus of Variations should be attended.

Higher Mechanics.

VIII., IX. Mechanics—*i.e.*, Statics, Dynamics of a Particle, and Hydrostatics.

The questions set in Paper IX. are generally of greater difficulty than those set in VIII. To succeed in these Papers the student must (1) know accurately the book-work contained in Todhunter's Analytical Statics, Tait and Steele's Dynamics of a Particle, and Besant's Hydromechanics; (2) and must be quick and accurate in doing problems. Walton's Problems in Theoretical Mechanics will be found useful if more problems than are contained in the above-mentioned works are required. The subjects of these Papers are difficult, and demand much labour and attention, which they well repay.

In addition to Todhunter, Minchin's Statics may also be read.

Dynamics.

X. Dynamics—*i.e.*, the Dynamics of a Rigid Body, and Hydromechanics.

For these subjects the text-books are Routh's Rigid Dynamics and Besant's Hydromechanics. The problems form an important part of this Paper; the student will therefore do well to familiarise himself especially with the problems

given in Routh, and, to a less extent, with those in Besant. Really good lectures on the subjects of the last three Papers will be very useful.

Optics. XI. Optics.

This Paper consists chiefly of book-work, and therefore little more can be said when the books have been recommended. These are Parkinson's Optics and Lloyd's Wave Theory of Light.

Astronomy. XII. Astronomy, including Spherical Astronomy, Lunar and Planetary Theories, and sections of Newton's Principia.

Newton should be read in Evans's edition, and the student must read also Godfray's Lunar Theory (Chapters 1–4, 6, 7) and Cheyne's Planetary Theory (Chapters 1, 2, 4). For this subject he must attend the lectures of the Savilian Professor of Astronomy.

This, as it at present exists, is a weak Paper. The questions are generally book-work, for which it is possible to "cram" in a short time. The introduction of a few problems would afford a surer test of excellence.

Conclusion. The above-mentioned books diligently studied will prove sufficient for the attainment of the highest Honours. The Tutor will advise the student as to the order in which he should read his books, and their relative importance. With regard to the latter question we may consider Dynamics as requiring and repaying best most attention, Optics, Statics, and Hydromechanics following next.

CHAPTER XIII.

LITERÆ HUMANIORES.

THIS School, as is generally known, is the Examination "par excellence" of Oxford, and the classes gained here rank higher in the estimation of most judges than those of History or Law. The reason for this is not far to seek. In the first place the Honours of a great portion of the alumni of Oxford distinguished in Politics, Theology, or Law have been gained here. Then a high class involves, generally speaking, not only hard and persistent study, but a large amount of thoughtful application, for the problems discussed here are many of them of the highest subtlety. Again a "Greats" man is considered to be capable of discussing from a high standpoint the current questions of the day. Lastly, Philosophy itself inspires the exoteric world with such awe, that a man who has mastered the thoughts of Plato and Aristotle is to it an intellectual aristocrat, and consequently worthy of deferential admiration.

This the representative School of Oxford.

Reasons for such an estimate.

We have remarked elsewhere the general culture with which such study is likely to imbue the student, and few we suppose will deny the wide reading which is demanded. Indeed it is upon this very fact that the opponents of this examination found their accusations. They assert that the mass of reading is too enormous to admit of any adequate study in the short time allowed. Hence they infer that a system of "cram" is neces-

sary ; that what is thus learnt is easily forgotten ; in fine, that this School does not test the real knowledge and powers of a man in the same degree as does a special and technical examination. There is in the first portion of this charge a certain amount of truth ; the time given is not sufficient for the work in hand, and in this age of smattering and superficiality all that tends to shallow, careless, or desultory reading is to be deprecated. But we do not believe that such superficiality is encouraged by "Greats." The subjects can be known certainly only in outlines, but these outlines must be studied steadily, thoroughly, and scientifically. In no other examination is shallow learning and "crammed" knowledge so easily detected, and judged at its proper value. On the other hand, nowhere else are such opportunities offered for the display of wide and varied study, of a mind which has grasped facts and inferences gathered from every science. The highest problems which have perplexed the human mind are here proposed for solution ; questions which have baffled philosophers, ancient and modern, are the familiar themes of the youthful student. It is possible that from this some intellectual arrogance is acquired ; but may we not condone this transitory error for the gain of a more wide and humane view of Social, Metaphysical, Historical or Political Philosophy ; of a more comprehensive grasp of subjects which, if only lightly touched, shed a ray of light upon the inner and outer life of man ? There must be few who have read for this School who would deny that they had received some such benefits thereby ; most students would, we imagine, gladly acknowledge the immense help afforded them in their intellectual life.

Superficiality not really encouraged by "Greats."

Wide knowledge necessary.

Comprehensive thought induced.

This examination consists of Stated Subjects and of Special Subjects.

Stated Subjects—in which papers will always be set. Subjects.

1. *Greek and Latin Languages.*

All Candidates will be expected to translate the Greek and Latin Books offered by them for examination, and to translate passages from other books not specially offered.

Passages will also be set for translation into Greek and Latin Prose.

2. *The Histories of Ancient Greece and Rome.*

All Candidates are required to offer a period of Greek and a period of Roman History. The periods which may be offered are :—

In Greek History—

(1) To the end of the Peloponnesian War.

(2) From B.C. 500 to the death of Philip.

With the first of these periods candidates are required to offer Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon's Hellenics, I. II.

With the second, Herodotus V.--IX. Thucydides, Xenophon's Hellenics, Demosthenes, Olynthiæs, Philippics, De Falsâ Legatione, and De Coronâ.

In Roman History :—

(1) From the beginning of the First Punic War to the Battle of Actium.

(2) From the end of the Third Punic War to the accession of Vespasian.

With the first of these periods candidates are required to offer Polybius I. II. III. VI. Plutarch's Lives of the Gracchi. Cicero's Letters (Watson's Selection). Sallust, Catiline and Jugurtha.

With the second, Plutarch's Lives of the

Gracchi. Cicero's Letters (Watson's Selection). Sallust, Catiline and Jugurtha. Tacitus, Annals, I.--VI.

Candidates will be expected to show such a knowledge of classical Geography and Antiquities, and of the general history of Greece and Rome, as shall be necessary for the profitable study of the authors or periods which they offer.

Questions will also be set in the general results of the science of language, with especial reference to Greek and Latin.

3. *Logic.*

The Outlines of Moral Philosophy.

The Outlines of Political Philosophy.

Under the head of Logic, candidates are recommended to study the following subjects :—

The nature and origin of knowledge.

The relation of language to thought.

The history of Logic in Greece to the time of Aristotle inclusive.

The theory of the syllogism.

Scientific Method, including a comparison of the methods of different sciences, and the principles of historical evidence. Questions will be set in Trendelenburg's Elementa Logices Aristoteleæ, and in Bacon's Novum Organum, Book I. and Book II., Aphorisms, 1–20.

Under the head of Political Philosophy, candidates are recommended to study the following subjects :—

The origin and growth of Society.

Political institutions and forms of government, with especial reference to the history of Greece and Rome.

The sphere and duties of government.

The leading principles of Political Economy.

The following books are prescribed for the examination :—

(1) Plato's Republic. (2) Plato's Protagoras, Phædrus, Gorgias, Laws III., VII., X. (3) Aristotle's Nicomachæan Ethics. (4) Aristotle's Politics. (5) Locke on the Human Understanding, with either (*a*) Butler's Sermons, or (*b*) Hume's Enquiry concerning the Principles of Morals. (6) The "Transcendental Aesthetik" and "Analytik" in Kant's "Kritik der reinen Vernunft," and the "Grundlegung zur Metaphysik der Sitten," with the two chapters of the "Kritik der praktischen Vernunft," entitled severally "Von den Grundsätzen" and "Von den Triebfedern, der reinen praktischen Vernunft."

(The prescribed portions of Kant may be offered in an English translation as well as in the German. Candidates, if they offer a translation, are requested to state in their list of books which translation they offer.)

Out of this list candidates are required to offer one book of Plato and another of Aristotle ; those who offer more than these necessary books may either select from this list a third book, either ancient or modern, or offer one of the special subjects. But candidates who have offered Plato's Republic and Aristotle's Nicomachæan Ethics may, if they think proper, offer a part of the Politics without bringing up the whole. Candidates will be expected to show such knowledge of the history of Philosophy, or of the history of the period of Philosophy to which the philosophical authors

offered by them, either as stated or as special subjects, belong, as shall be necessary for the profitable study of these authors.

Special Subjects. (*Vide Statutes.*)

Choice of subjects.

The first preliminary of work for "Greats" will be, of course, the choice of authors and subjects, and this the student should at once settle. We shall offer a few suggestions to assist him in forming his selection.

History.

Greek.

First as to History. In Greek History the choice of two periods is offered, either (1) to the end of the Peloponnesian War, or (2) from B.C. 500 to the death of Philip.

The man who has already some knowledge of Greek History will be able to decide for himself; but to the novice we may advance a few considerations.

First period preferable, for several reasons.

We consider the first period to be undoubtedly preferable, for several reasons. In the first place, it begins at the beginning, and does not plunge us, as does the second alternative, *in medias res;* moreover, in the latter case, a knowledge of early history is quite indispensable. Next, generally speaking, the period itself has more interest, and will prove more profitable. The struggles of the democracy and aristocracy in the various states; the history of colonisation; and especially the gradual rise to power of Sparta and Athens, will give greater pleasure to the student than the miserable quarrels between 400 and 336, and the sad spectacle presented by the ultimate ruin and fall of Hellas. Nor are these considerations counterbalanced by the fact that the second period is rich in interesting personalities, such as Epaminondas or Demosthenes; a history of whom,

however fascinating it may be, has not the substantial advantages which are possessed by an acquaintance with early constitutional history. Lastly, the books offered for the first period will probably appear of more value. By taking up the second period, the first four books of Herodotus are lost, and for this wonderful mass of information and antiquarian lore the compensation offered by Xenophon and Demosthenes is scarcely a worthy one.

Roman.

With regard to Roman History, the second period is, we think, to be preferred, but in this there will doubtless be a diversity of opinion, owing to the great interest of the Punic Wars. We consider, however, that the study of the Empire will be of more service, and the Annals of Tacitus are pleasanter and more profitable reading than the specified books of Polybius.

Second period perhaps preferable.

Logic, &c.

The third division of the examination is "Logic, and the outlines of Moral and Political Philosophy." To the ordinary student these subjects will be almost new, though that portion of Mill taken up for Moderations will have familiarised him with the theory of Deduction, and, in some degree, of Induction, if he have preferred that portion of Mill to Aristotle's Organon.

Ethics and Republic indispensable.

Although a choice of several books is given, and no one is particularly prescribed, it will be almost necessary for the student to take up the Republic of Plato and the Ethics of Aristotle. These two works have, through long custom, so become a part of Oxford culture, that a classical education is not complete without them. Moreover, the student will not have the slightest chance of understanding theoretical Morality as studied at Oxford,

unless he has carefully made himself acquainted with these masterpieces.

Third book not necessary.

There remains a third book, either ancient or modern, which may be offered, but is not necessary, and we should advise the student, unless he is prepared to read very hard, to omit this. At all events, he should wait till the last six months before the examination to decide, when he will have a better opportunity of estimating his progress and ability.

Politics most useful if one is chosen.

If such a one be chosen, Aristotle's Politics will be found most useful, bearing, as it does, upon the constitutional history of the Greek States, and other important questions. In any case some knowledge of the Politics is desirable. By the new regulations students may offer a part of the Politics without taking up the whole.

Special subject unadvisable.

Further than this a special subject may be offered, but we do not advise the student to burden himself with this. Besides these books Bacon's Novum Organum, i. ii., 1–20, and Trendelenburg's Elementa Logices Aristoteleæ must be offered.

We will now suppose that choice has been made, and that the books to be read are the following :—

Books to be read.

Herodotus ; Thucydides ; Xenophon's Hellenics, i. ii.

Plutarch's Gracchi ; Sallust, Catiline and Jugurtha ; Cicero's Letters ; Tacitus, Annals, i.—vi.

Plato's Republic ; Aristotle's Ethics ; Novum Organum, i. ii., 1–20 ; Trendelenburg.

Besides this the student will be obliged to read the modern books bearing on these subjects, with treatises on Political Economy, Legislation, Ethics, Logic, History of Philosophy, &c.

We have remarked above that the time allowed for the acquisition of this knowledge—at most three years, generally two years—is not at all sufficient for a thoroughly scientific study. The student must at once, therefore, determine upon steady, consistent, and methodised reading; and must forswear all outside study which may interfere with his proper work. It must be admitted that this School is liable to give a man opportunity and excuse for dabbling in various questions, and, as an intellectual bee, flying from flower to flower. But this habit, if success is aimed at, must be put aside. While a cultured knowledge of general literature, and an acquaintance with the social and political questions of the day, is an immense help to the proper appreciation of the work in hand, a desultory habit of reading magazines and political pamphlets indiscriminately will most certainly be ruinous to honest study. The student must be on his guard against the inducements held out to such varied reading by several historians, notably Grote and Buckle, nor should he, in his laudable eagerness for knowledge, verify the references made in every note of these authors. If this be the case, he will find that out of the two hours or more he has set apart for his history, one at least has been consumed in studying the growth of the Swiss Republics, or the marriage customs of some ancient tribe, subjects which, however interesting in themselves they may be, will be found of doubtful advantage in the Schools.

Methodised reading necessary; desultory study fatal.

We shall now offer a few hints on the general course of reading, and then proceed to discuss the books in detail.

The first division of the examination is the

Unseen translation and Greek and Latin Prose.

"Greek and Latin Languages." Candidates will be expected to translate unseen passages, and also to translate passages into Latin and Greek Prose. For both of these practice is needed, and the student should endeavour to keep up any excellence he may have acquired. For this the extended course of reading will prove very useful. Naturally much less importance is attached to Prose and scholarship generally than in Moderations; but still excellence in this carries great weight, and the student will act foolishly and fatally in neglecting subjects which, of all others, need the most constant and careful exercise to be retained in perfection. A piece of Prose once a week should not be a great burden to the student, while it will keep his powers of Composition fresh and ready.

History and Philosophy.

The second division consists of a period of Greek and Roman History with certain authors to be read. We will assume that the authors are chosen as above, and that the student is ready to at once begin his work. We shall now make a few remarks on the system of reading history and philosophy.

Historians to be read in chronological order.

With regard to the historical books, the most obvious and at the same time advantageous method is to read the authors offered as far as possible in chronological order. Thus the student should commence with his Greek History, reading first Herodotus, then Thucydides, completed by Xenophon. After the Greek History has been finished the Roman should be taken in hand, and read in a similar manner. First he should read Plutarch's Gracchi, then Sallust's Jugurtha and Catiline, to be followed by Cicero's Letters, and lastly the

Annals of Tacitus i.–vi. With these books he should of course read his Grote, Mommsen, or other historical works.

He should not give up his whole day to History, but his philosophical books should be read side by side. An excellent plan is to devote one half of the working day to Philosophy, and the other to History. As we have before insisted, the morning is by far the best portion of the day for hard study, and we think the student should never fail to devote these hours to that branch of his reading which demands the most concentrated attention; which is certainly Philosophy. The remaining portion of his day he may assign to History. If this plan be consistently carried out, he will find that he has not, as is only too frequent, sacrificed one portion of his reading to the other, but that each has received its proper amount of attention.

Day proportioned out between History and Philosophy; to the latter the morning.

His philosophical reading should commence with the Republic; then the Ethics may be taken in hand, and after this the Aristotelian Logic and the Novum Organum. Mill's Logic, and other works bearing on Logic and Moral and Political Philosophy, may be read side by side with all these.

Commencement to be made with the Republic.

We will now proceed to give some more detailed advice on the separate books.

If the student has passed his Moderations in the Summer Term he will have the Long Vacation before him, and, if he be wise, will have read by October, Herodotus, half his Republic, and some Mill or other accessory work—*e.g.*, part of Mill's Logic, or his Utilitarianism. We consider that his work should be commenced with the Republic, as it is many degrees easier than the Ethics, and

"Long" not to be wasted.

Republic.

can be read with less risk without the aid of a lecture. The study of this work will be found by the student a real pleasure. Full of the noblest thoughts, expressed in the most beautiful and rhythmical Greek; replete with delicate fancies; its seriousness relieved by dainty wit—this is the most splendid achievement of the great philosopher. The genius of many successors may have rivalled, but has never surpassed it.

Plato and Aristotle.

A great similarity will be noticed between Plato's opinions as expressed in the Republic, and those of Aristotle; but the Philosophy of Plato is by Aristotle "sawn up into quantities,"* and what is expressed by the former with poetic licence, becomes in the system of the latter a precise and logical formula. Plato's remarks on Pleasure, his Division of the Soul, and his theories of Education and Legislation, should be studied, with many points, side by side with Aristotle's statements on the same questions, and the points of similarity and difference carefully noticed.

Lecture not absolutely necessary.

It will probably be found advisable to attend a lecture on the Republic, if the Tutor is known to be a good one. An indifferent lecture will not be of the slightest use; in fact such assistance may be often dispensed with altogether, for the Republic is a comparatively easy book to understand.

Jowett's Translation.

There is no English commentary on this work, and the Latin notes of Stalbaum will hardly repay perusal. This deficiency is admirably supplied by Professor Jowett's Translation of the Dialogues—a work which is an honour to English

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* Jowett, vol. iii. p. 126.

scholarship, and which is quite indispensable for the study of Plato. The translation itself is almost perfect, and though expressed in idiomatic English, and far from slavishly following the Greek, is sufficiently literal for the merest tyro. The most valuable part of the work, however, we consider to be the prefaces and introductions to the separate dialogues. In the Republic, as elsewhere, they will afford the greatest assistance, and, diligently read, should be quite sufficient for the proper understanding of this book. We advise the student to read over the English by itself before entering the schools, for the translation is of remarkable beauty, and will be found to fix itself on the memory of the reader where the Greek original may be entirely forgotten.

English should be read by itself.

A very brief analysis may be written out and consulted with profit, though not so much so as in the case of Aristotle. There is a very scholarly and faithful translation of the Republic by Messrs. Davies and Vaughan, which will often prove of great advantage.

Analysis.

In the historical portion of his reading the student should commence with Herodotus, and we have said that he will be able to read it during the Long Vacation. He may notice how a similar religious and unpractical spirit runs through the Republic and Herodotus ; and that by reason of these elements, the former stands in the same relation to the Ethics, as Herodotus does to Thucydides. Herodotus will be found generally an easy book, but there are passages scattered about of which a skilful examiner can make great use in confounding a careless student. It will be well to possess or refer to a copy of Rawlinson's edition,

Herodotus.

Editions.

where the translation will be found generally accurate, and the voluminous notes will dispense with the necessity of Bähr's edition, whose commentary is certainly superior to all others, but is written in Latin—a very great objection to most men. It is unfortunate that the notes and translation in Rawlinson are combined, as we fear the proximity of the latter may conduce to slovenly study, and the student should never trust wholly to the English. The appendices will furnish great assistance to the student of Eastern History, but in ordinary reading we should recommend their omission. The third chapter in the Introduction, on the merits and defects of the historian, must be carefully studied; and if there be sufficient time, the second chapter on the sources of his history, may be read. A knowledge of the contents of these chapters will generally furnish the answer to two questions at least in the examination papers. Herodotus should be read with constant reference to Grote, and frequent marking of the more important and difficult passages. Here the note-book may be called into requisition, and a system of heads adopted.

Rawlinson's Introductions.

Herodotus will, we think, be found pleasant reading by most men. It was the custom to account for the quaintness of many of Herodotus' remarks by referring them to his childishly inquiring spirit; but this view, we consider, is neither founded on fact, nor adapted to increase our admiration for the Father of History. Many shrewd thoughts are scattered throughout his work, and in more than one instance he has shown his good sense in rationalising absurd stories of Divine interference. No doubt there are many serious faults

Herodotus unduly appreciated.

to be discovered, both of omission and of commission—*e.g.*, his curious habit of Hellenising Persian history; but if his writings be studied apart from preconceived notions, his liveliness of narration, and his evident impartiality and love of truth, should satisfy the most fastidious as to his historical qualifications.

Turner's Notes to Herodotus are in some ways useful, though antiquated and badly arranged. The Analysis of Wheeler is valuable, and should be carefully read. Analysis.

The student should take in hand Aristotle's Ethics as soon as it is possible to attend a good lecture on the subject. Without such aid it will be impossible to understand this book, for he will find Aristotle his most difficult author—not only to comprehend, but also to translate. In every page there are passages which may puzzle him for hours, and concerning which the greatest scholars entirely differ. Very often he will find no apparent connexion between sentence and sentence, and the link which unites them is generally of the subtlest character. It is supposed (with great probability) that the Ethics were delivered originally to pupils in the form of lectures, and that this accounts for the detached form of the sentences, and the conversational tone which is apparent in many passages. Whether this be so or not, the student will find it necessary to attend a lecture, which usually lasts for three Terms—*i.e.*, a year. He should always read carefully beforehand that portion which the Tutor will lecture upon; by which means he will be able to follow the lecturer with ease, which he certainly will not do if he is unable to translate the text. The Ethics the most important and difficult book. Lecture necessary.

Interleaved copy.

It will be well to use an interleaved copy, and to mark any passages which seem of exceptional difficulty and importance, writing on the other side the translation or brief explanation.

Commentaries.

The commentaries and aids to the Ethics are not of the first class. The best commentary is that by Sir Alexander Grant, which is now generally used. It is not, however, remarkable either for accurate scholarship or profound grasp of the subject: in many cases the interpretations given are very misleading. The editor often attempts to translate or explain Aristotle by modern philosophical terms, and this very frequently results not only in failure, but also in positive error. However, with the assistance of a good Tutor, this commentary will be found sufficient to surmount the various difficulties.

Grant's notes and Essays.

A very useful portion of the work is the second essay in Vol. I., on the Early Greek Moralists, which should be read carefully, and may dispense with a History of Philosophy, in some degree. Portions, too, of Essays I., III., IV., will be found useful, but are certainly longer than is necessary. Essay VII., on "The Relation of the Ethics to Modern Systems," which, if worked out properly, would have been most valuable, is very meagre, and does not rise at all to its subject. The student should be on his guard against the Eudemian theory, which is constantly obtruded by Sir A. Grant, and which, though an easy explanation of many difficulties, is founded on small evidence.

There are several other commentaries, but they will not be found profitable study, nor probably will the student find time to read them.

Translations.

In the matter of translations, there is one by

Williams, too paraphrastic to be useful at first, but which may be read afterwards; and one by Chase, which errs on the other side, and is too literal, but is probably the best, and should be read for the first study of the text. In reading the Ethics especially, the student must beware of an indiscriminate use of the "crib," and should always attempt to make out every difficulty by himself, only using the translation as supplementary.

Cross references.

When the Ethics are read for the second time, they should be studied with greater attention to philosophical points; and the coherence and consistency of Aristotle's Ethical System should be noted and proved by frequent cross-references: a work which will be facilitated by using a copy of Rogers' text, which contains references at the bottom of the page. At this period a careful and short analysis should be made, and written at the heading of each page of the interleaved copy, or in the note-book. The notes at lecture should be roughly taken, and then copied into the interleaved edition, which should be of a large size.* At the end of the book there should be room for various longer notes. By this means everything important bearing on the subject will always be ready at hand, and reference to various books will be spared.

We need scarcely say that the Ethics must be studied with the closest attention to every point, however small, and should never be taken up at odd ten minutes; nor should the student attempt to measure the work done by the number of pages

* The Oxford edition of the Ethics has been printed on large paper, and this, interleaved, will be found amply sufficient.

read. One page thoroughly digested and understood, is more profitable than a dozen hurriedly and thoughtlessly read.

Mental analysis of Aristotle useful.

When the student has read two or three pages, and finished his morning's work, he should not then put away the thought of these pages from his mind, but should give up a quarter of an hour to recalling and thinking over his work. It will be found that to mentally analyse any of Aristotle's conclusions will not only strengthen the memory for the work in hand, but will prove, if persisted in, one of the most useful of mental exercises.

Ethics to be read several times.

Those passages which the student finds especially difficult should be carefully marked, and read again and again, apart from the ordinary study of the work.

The Ethics should be read at least four times, and more, if time can be found. It is a book whose language generally so easily escapes the memory, and where the connexion of thought is so hard to follow, that nothing but continual reading will implant it in the mind.

During the time he is reading the Ethics, the student should assign to it at least two hours a day; and this will, we imagine, be found enough. In most cases the mind refuses to dwell upon any one subject for more than a certain time, and any effort to force the inclination will only end in defeating the very object in view.

Thucydides a difficult author.

The next historical book on the list is Thucydides, who will probably be not altogether a new author to the student. He will certainly find him a very difficult author, not only in style but in matter, and demanding close attention. Careful study will obviate all difficulties of style; for the

subject-matter a wise use of the many aids to Thucydides is necessary. In the eight books there are collected a vast multitude of facts bearing on different subjects, and notices of men and states are necessarily scattered and somewhat unconnected, owing to the chronological system of the author. Thus the student will find a note-book indispensable, where he may bring together such statements under heads. An interleaved copy will be an additional assistance for the understanding of the text. It may be found useful to analyse Thucydides, but very briefly. A more elaborate analysis is that of Wheeler, which should afford great assistance, and may be read during the last Term.

Note-book necessary.

Side by side with Thucydides Grote should be carefully read ; and his history should enable the student to dispense with the necessity of a translation.

Grote.

The best commentary is that of Poppo (*editio minor*), an exceedingly accurate work, in which, however, the historical and geographical questions are treated very meagrely ; a deficiency which may be supplied by reference to Arnold's edition. Of translations Crawley's is perhaps the best.

Commentaries.

The introductory chapters in Thucydides should be read with the greatest care : and the early history of Greece, especially the rise of Athens and Sparta, has been told by Grote with unrivalled skill.

Before the end of the first year Trendelenburg's Elements of Aristotle's Logic should have been read, and a lecture on it, if possible, attended. This small book will be found probably the most uninteresting and obnoxious of all the subjects ;

Trendelenburg very difficult.

Careful study necessary.

but for this very reason it must be studied with the greatest care, and read several times. Several of the aphorisms will well repay committal to memory. The selections do not cohere well, and often important passages have been omitted ; but a good Tutor will generally supply the connecting links. The same assistance will also enable the student to dispense, in some degree, with the Latin notes at the end of the book, which sometimes indeed only mystify further a mystery.

Grote and Mansel.

If time be found portions of Grote's Aristotle should be read, which will help to clear up many difficulties. The appendices and notes to Mansel's Aldrich are very valuable for Aristotle's Logic.

Xenophon.

After Thucydides has been finished for the first time, the books of Xenophon's Hellenics, forming a continuation to the former author, should be read. The first two books are short, and free from difficulty, and may be easily read in a few days. The details of the trial of the generals after Arginusæ, and Grote's somewhat laboured defence of the action of the Athenians in that matter, must be particularly noticed.

Bacon, Novum Organum.

The last necessary specified philosophical book is Bacon's Novum Organum, i. ii. 1–20. There is room here for a large amount of labour ; and the student should beware of falling into the common error of neglecting this book, which, though somewhat tedious, is very important. For the study of the Novum Organum Ellis' prefaces (contained in vol. i. of Spedding's edition of Bacon's works) will be indispensable. These prefaces are two in number—one on Bacon's general system, and one on the Novum Organum. Of these the first should be read with particular care, as it gives, in a small

compass, and with admirable lucidity, the chief points of Bacon's philosophy. No good commentary exists,* but perhaps Ellis's notes will be found sufficient. There is a translation of the Novum Organum in vol. iv. of Bacon's works. Notes and aids.

Kuno Fischer's work on Bacon and his times is very good, and frequent reference should be made to it. Unfortunately it is now very scarce. We should advise the student to write a short and very accurate analysis of the books offered. He will find this assist him to understand and appreciate the coherence of the whole.

It is necessary to thoroughly determine the position of Bacon in relation to earlier and later thinkers; and to note his influence on after civilisation. Macaulay's essay on Bacon is very brilliant, but scarcely does justice to the great philosopher.

If it is possible to select one portion of the Novum Organum as more deserving of attention than another, it is his theory of Forms. This, intimately connected as it is with his system, generally appears under one aspect or another in the examination papers. "Forms."

After the Greek historical books have been read, the student must turn his attention to his Latin authors, or those treating of Roman History. The first of these is Plutarch, whose Lives of the Gracchi will not take up much time, but should not at all be neglected. Side by side with his Roman books he should, of course, read his Roman History, which will probably be Mommsen. A small book, Plutarch.

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* Since this was written, an edition, with notes, has been published by Professor Fowler, and seems likely to be of great assistance.

published in the "Epochs of Ancient History" by Mr. Beesly, may be found useful on some points, though from its evident partiality too much dependence must not be placed upon it.

Sallust. The second author is Sallust, who must be read with care, for he is often difficult to translate, and his veracity is open to suspicion. The state of Rome at the time of the Catilinarian conspiracy, and the real causes of the latter movement, must be especially noted; and a careful examination of this question will be found in an article by Professor Beesly.* A system of heads may be adopted here with profit—*e.g.*, instances may be noted of the state of the Roman army, provincial government, or state of society at Rome, &c.

Cicero's Letters. The best edition of Sallust for historical purposes is Long's. After Sallust, Cicero's Letters must be taken in hand, and read with the greatest care. The "Select Letters" is a very uninteresting and unsatisfactory work, and is the most difficult of the Latin authors. The unfortunate result is not to be imputed to the editor, but is due to the nature of the work; and the introductions, which are very important, could probably not have been made more interesting without increasing the already large bulk of the work. The student will probably find this book extremely difficult to remember, and there are an enormous number of passages which, when detached from their proper context, will require very accurate knowledge to explain. For this reason it should certainly be read during the last Term; and all

Great care necessary.

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* This article (with some others) has been published in a small volume.

passages in the text, notes, or introductions which seem important should be carefully marked, and referred to before entering the Schools. Here, again, the note-book is indispensable; and instances of constitutional questions involved; the state of parties in the Senate; the real feelings of the population towards Cæsar and Pompey; good or bad traits in Cæsar's character; examples of Cicero's political foresight or want of foresight, &c., should be copied out, and will always insure correct answers to at least two questions. Merivale and Mommsen may be read here; Mommsen for the first, Merivale for the second, period. Merivale's edition of Abeken's Cicero will be found useful, and may be read with profit, if time be found.

Note-book indispensable.

The last book is Tacitus. The six books of the Annals which are required will probably inspire different feelings in different men. On the one hand they are monotonous, as he himself confesses, while the style is difficult; on the other hand they are often interesting, and the author several times rises to a high degree of eloquence. It is said that Tacitus is generally the least carefully studied of all the authors, and that for this reason the Examiners attach great importance to a thorough knowledge of this book. It is certain that careful study is always repaid. The system of heads is useful here, and examples of such points as the imperial privileges, state of provinces, traits in Tiberius's character, and condition of society, will furnish answers to several questions. The political reflections and digressions which are scattered about should be brought together.

Tacitus.

There exists, so far as we are aware, no good commentary on the Annals. Frost's edition is

rather adapted to Moderations, but perhaps the notes published in the "Oxford Pocket Classics" may prove useful. The translation of Church and Brodribb is excellent. With the Annals Merivale should be read.

With regard to the historical books generally the student should always be acquainted with the sources whence the author derived his history, his impartiality or otherwise, his system of chronology or geography, his inconsistencies, his views on the objects of history, his political views or reflections.

We have now dealt with all those books which it is necessary that the candidate for Honours should study. In place of two of these, both in the historical and philosophical branches, he may choose alternatives, which however, we think, will prove less interesting and profitable. In place of part of Herodotus and the Annals he may offer Demosthenes and Polybius by choosing different periods. Of the first author he may read the Crown with the aid either of Holmes or Simcox, both being excellent editions. Of the other orations there are several editions, but none are especially useful, that of Shilleto on the Legation being one almost solely of pure scholarship. If he determines at a later period to offer the Politics as a third philosophical book he will lament the want of a good edition, those of Congreve and Eaton furnishing the minimum amount of assistance. We need not say of what importance the Politics are, and what a light they throw upon Greek Constitutional History. The student will notice also several interesting but too practical criticisms on some of Plato's political and educational schemes.

Demosthenes.

The Politics.

The specified books have been dealt with, and we shall now offer a few suggestions on the best method of reading for Greek and Roman History, Logic, and Moral and Political Philosophy. History, General study of.

For Greek History Grote has long been the acknowledged text-book, nor is his History likely to be superseded as yet by any other works. It is in fact one of the greatest literary achievements of the century, from whatever point of view it is considered, and we should advise the student to confine his attention to it. Thirlwall's History is an excellent and strictly impartial work, and the more modern one of Curtius is useful on many points, more especially in Geography, and to these two books reference may sometimes be made. Grote, an ardent politician himself, has the advantage of a deep sympathy with the most finished product of Greek civilisation, the Athenian democracy; and although his bias is sometimes too evident, in most cases his conclusions are sound, and may be followed with confidence. His History is rich, too, in references to modern parallels, and will thus prove useful for Political Philosophy. In questions of pure scholarship he is certainly not infallible, but this defect is not so important in this School as in Moderations. Greek. Grote, the text-book.

For Roman History Mommsen should certainly be read, for an acquaintance with him is presupposed, nor is he surpassed by any other work. Vivid and picturesque in the extreme, Mommsen carries his readers along with him; and though sometimes we may feel that with him accuracy has been sacrificed for a point or an antithesis, he may, we think, generally be followed. Moreover, his knowledge of philology and politics adds a rare value Roman. Mommsen.

to his work. His accounts of Cæsar and Cicero are overstrained in different directions, and with his views those of Merivale and Ihne may be
Ihne. profitably contrasted. Ihne's History we do not advise the student to read. It is certainly a very accurate and painstaking work, but in it Roman History is made as uninteresting as it can possibly be; while the style, as may be expected of a German writing in a foreign language, is slovenly and dull. Probably the most important portion of his work is his consideration of the early myths, on which his chapters are really valuable. He has also written a small book, "Early Rome," on the same subject, and the question is well treated by Sir G. C. Lewis in the "Inquiry into the Credibility of Early Roman History." Arnold's History is interesting, and written in a masterly manner, but is now somewhat obsolete; while to his "Later Roman Commonwealth" the student may
Merivale. often refer with advantage. For the History of the Empire, Merivale's "Romans under the Empire" should be read, and will prove most interesting and valuable. His "Fall of the Republic" will also be found useful.

The student will find that his knowledge and grasp of Greek and Roman History will depend far more upon a careful perusal of Grote and Mommsen than upon a technical acquaintance
General papers. with the specified books. Of course such acquaintance is necessary to enable him to answer the separate papers on these books, the questions of which can only be understood from a knowledge of the several authors. But there is a general paper on Greek and Roman History, where a wider knowledge of the whole history is

required. Of course this, if possible, should be read in the works of Grote and Mommsen. We fear, however, that there are many men who will not find time to read through nine or ten large volumes in addition to the study of their books. And to these we recommend the General Histories of Cox and Merivale, which are written in as interesting a style as is allowed by the space, and are generally accurate. In place of these he may read the Student's Greece and Rome, which are good and useful. In addition to these he must refer to Grote and Mommsen on particular points. There are, of course, many books dealing with particular circumstances or periods to which a reference is often advisable, and such the student's Tutor will always point out. Some very useful essays are contained in the second volume of Freeman's Historical Essays, and Forsyth's Life of Cicero is valuable. For the early history of the Empire we may refer to a small but excellent little book, Cape's "Early Empire."

Short histories.

Additional books.

Besides these we strongly advise the student to read during the last month the small editions of Histories we have mentioned. These will give him a brief but general survey of the whole subject, and will refresh his memory, where it fails in facts. There will always be a History lecture, which may be attended generally with profit. In reading a large History the student is wont to pass over the small facts which make up the generalisation, and here the lecture, if good, will prove a great assistance in collecting under heads scattered notices of various subjects in different authors.

Smaller editions for facts.

In reading History a good Atlas should always be at hand. History cannot be understood with-

Geography.

out a fair knowledge of Geography, and there are usually in the paper some questions which can only be answered properly from such knowledge. The various mountain-passes, roads, and configurations of country, which assist or impede the practice of warfare, must be noticed; and plans of battles or besieged places, such as Syracuse and Platæa, should be carefully studied. The large Atlas of Dr. Smith is of course superior to all others, but its price (6*l.* 6*s.*) will place it beyond the reach of most men. Spruner's Atlas Antiquus leaves nothing to be desired, and is moderate in price. Kiepert's Atlas is good, but too small.

Special attention is to be paid to the history of Colonisation, of which a good account is to be found in Rawlinson's "Manual of Ancient History."

Dates.

The student should never think dates unworthy of notice; in many cases they are of the highest importance, while absence of all dates in an answer to a question is a sign of slovenly study. Occasional reference may be made to the Epitomes of Fynes Clinton's Fasti Hellenici and Romani; and Greek chronology is treated very fully by Grote.

Ethnology.

In the early history of Greeks and Romans, their ethnology is to be most carefully examined. Their ethnic affinities throw light on their character and conduct, which often cannot be rightly understood without knowledge of their relationships. On this point Mommsen is especially good, while Grote is inferior to Curtius.

Antiquities.

With regard to antiquities, a large amount of useful information may be derived from Ramsay's smaller work on the subject, and various articles in Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities should be

consulted. The Dictionaries of Biography and Geography will also prove useful in affording a succinct account of the history of various important persons or places—*e.g.*, Naxos or Miletus.

Logic and Philosophy.

Logic. Moral and Political Philosophy.

We have now to consider those subjects which will be most strange to the student, and the study of which will involve great labour and a large amount of steady thought. For example, under the head of Logic are included questions of the most varied character, and it is easy to see that the study of such a problem as the nature and origin of knowledge, might carry the student through the whole range of philosophy. With such a wide subject as this before him, he may refer to a multitude of works, until he becomes entirely appalled at the magnitude of reading required for a deep study, and finds himself at last the possessor of a large mass of conflicting opinions, but with no clear ideas, and in reality not much nearer the goal of knowledge than when he first started. Against such a result as this the student must carefully guard, and he must therefore be content to confine himself to a comparatively few books, and to a study of the outlines rather than of the works of the great philosophers. If he attempts to acquaint himself more intimately with their thoughts, or enter upon a more extensive survey of the whole sphere of philosophy, his ambition will almost certainly end in failure and disaster. It is impossible in the short time allowed, and when other subjects are to be studied, to do more than, after a few special works have been read, gain a general acquaintance with the outlines of the history, or of the various systems of philosophy;

General Remarks.

Necessity of confining attention to a few books.

and if such be acquired, clearly and intelligently, the student may well be satisfied. We would most strongly then impress upon him the necessity of confining his attention to a few good books, and to working up carefully one system and no more. It must be understood that this refers to Moral Philosophy as well as to Logic, on a course for which we shall now offer a few suggestions.

There are, as we have said, some few books which it is quite necessary to read. Of these undoubtedly the chief is Mill's Logic. The study of this book should certainly not be postponed long, and if possible a beginning should be made in the second Term. It is not strictly necessary to read through the whole work, though of course such a thorough perusal is very desirable. In some cases, at all events, it will be found advisable to omit the greater portion of the first two books, and to be contented with an analysis. The student may begin at chapter v. of Book II., on Demonstration, and read thence to the end. If he has taken Honours in Moderations he may be especially allowed to do this, as his former studies will have familiarised him with a large portion of the first volume. The Logic is a book which requires the most exclusive attention, and no sentence should be allowed to pass unless thoroughly understood. The study of this work will be found to colour the whole philosophical system of the student. For here the most varied questions are handled and disposed of, and the Logic has been the sole philosophical handbook of hundreds of Englishmen. It is written in an admirably clear way, and in this respect forms a pleasing contrast to other works on similar subjects. This lucidity

Logic.

Mill, careful study of, necessary.

and easiness of style is, however, often likely to prove a snare. The reader passes on, charmed with the intelligible way in which the most subtle doctrines are handled, only to find, when he is required to give an account in his own language of Mill's arguments, that their connexion or foundation have entirely escaped him.

The Logic should certainly be read a second time, and a thorough knowledge of this work will enable the student to answer fully and accurately a large portion of the Logic paper. Thus the reading of other Logical works may be in great measure dispensed with; such reference being rendered inobligatory by the very full statement Mill always gives of the positions of his adversaries. But there are several works which should be read, if only in part. Bain's Logic may be profitably consulted on many points. The work itself is of an unrelieved dulness, but useful from the large accumulation of facts and examples, thus forming a kind of appendix to Mill, and on some points correcting him. The appendices and notes to Mansel's Aldrich will be found of great use, more especially as explanatory of several points of Aristotle's Logic.

Bain.

Prof. Fowler's manual of Inductive Logic has the merit of clearness, but does not add much to the former works. The study of Mill's Logic may be supplemented by his "Examination of Sir W. Hamilton's Philosophy." This discusses the greater portion of Hamilton's system, and it will be found a lucid and interesting review of a philosophy which once numbered among its adherents some of the most distinguished men of the day. It is too long for a thorough perusal, nor will some

Mill's examination of Hamilton.

chapters be worth such. We may point out as specially important—chaps. 5, 11, 12, 16, 20, 26. Even of these a large portion may be omitted with safety, but such details may well be left to the discretion of the student. Mansel's Prolegomena Logica may be read in parts, and is a very able defence of his system, which is a Hamiltonianism made more rational. Bain's Mental Science is useful, and we may refer especially to chap. 9 (Book II.), on the Origin of Knowledge, with Appendix, p. 33; chap. 7, on Theory of Vision; Appendix, p. 91, on the Laws of Association; chap. 7, on Perception of a Material World.

Mansel.

Advisability of adopting a specific system of Philosophy.

In addition to the above treatises the student must read some History of General Philosophy, together with a few other works bearing on the subject, which we shall mention below. Men are often advised to adopt some specific system of Logic and Moral Philosophy, and to answer all questions, and resolve all problems by reference to such. It is not necessarily implied by this that such a system is the conscientious outcome of thought and reading, or is the real expression of the student's opinions, but simply that hereby confusion will be avoided and consistency attained. It is generally found that men who adopt an eclectic philosophy after only slight study fail in the Schools from answering the different questions with reference to various systems, and hereby display contradiction in language, and some confusion in thought. It will be far better for the student to choose one system, carefully work it up, and answer everything from its standpoint. Whether the system be that of Mill, Kant, or Hegel, will not make a great amount of difference, provided it is clearly under-

stood in its general aspects. It is not in our province to recommend any particular philosophy, and the student, when he has read the works we shall advise, should be in a position to select one for himself.

First then he must read a History of Philosophy. Ueberweg's is by far the best History, and is very accurate ; but it is too full for the ordinary student, and very dry in style. On the other hand Lewes' History is extremely interesting, and, though much affected by the Positivist opinions of the author, is probably the best fitted to instruct the student in the short time allowed. We believe it has been found an excellent plan to read Lewes, and compare him with the large print part of Ueberweg ; and we should imagine that such a method is likely to give the student a clear and full idea on the subject. History of Philosophy. Ueberweg. Lewes.

Schwegler's Handbook is very good, especially for the earlier philosophers, but we do not think it will be found on the whole so useful as Lewes. Cousin's "General History of Philosophy," is brilliant and lively, and may be read with profit ; and Jouffroy's* Lectures are extremely clear and accurate. Ferrier's Lectures on early Greek Philosophy are most eloquently and intelligibly written, and will well repay perusal. Zeller's Stories and Plato are very useful, and worthy of reference.† Schwegler. Cousin. Jouffroy. Ferrier. Zeller.

After this we should advise the student to read carefully Ribot's Contemporary English Psychology, Ribot.

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* Reference must certainly be made to Ritter and Preller's Greek and Roman Philosophy, which contains a succinct account of the various systems, with copious illustrative extracts.

† Chiefly on moral systems.

which contains a clear and accurate account of the chief English systems. At this period the student may choose a system whichever commends itself to him, and be content with the general knowledge of the other systems which he gains from the Histories.

Kant and Hegel important.

On Kant it will be advisable to read Henderson's Translation of Cousin's Lectures on the Critique of Pure Reason, and Mahaffy's Kant. There is a work on Kant by Prof. Caird, but it is long and somewhat dull. Ueberweg gives an admirable account of Kant's system.

On Hegel the student should read Wallace's "Logic of Hegel," and the account in Schwegler. There will be found an interesting criticism on this philosopher in Jowett's Plato, vol. iv., Introduction to the Sophist.

We believe that the systems of Kant and Hegel are rapidly gaining ground in Oxford, and some acquaintance with them is necessary. But the student should not plunge too deeply into Hegelian mysteries. The system is most difficult to grasp, and in many cases Hegel's remarks (and those of his followers) are simply unintelligible.

Berkeley.

With regard to Berkeley, Prof. Fraser's edition of his Life and Works leaves nothing to be desired. But this will be found probably too lengthy—and in that case the student may well be satisfied with the smaller edition, containing selections. The editor's statement of Berkeley's view should be read with care.

Comte.

The best edition of Comte's Positive Philosophy is the one by Miss Martineau, but this is too long, and a general sketch of his philosophy is found in Lewes' History. Mill's essay on Comte and

Positivism is very able, but scarcely does justice to the system.

Hume's works have been edited successfully by Messrs. Green and Grose, and his system criticised at length in the introductions from an Hegelian standpoint. Hume.

For Spencer the student should read his "First Principles"; if there be not time for this, the main drift of his system is well given in Ribot. H. Spence

Of course we do not advise the student to read all those works bearing on particular philosophers mentioned above. That would be an impossibility in the time; and our only object is to point out a few works bearing on a system which the student may possibly select. The list does not pretend to be complete, and may be increased to a large bulk, but we advise the student not so to increase it. As we have before said, a few good books carefully read, will prove of more value than twenty ill-digested. The habit of reading, at odd times, various books on a subject, will cause great confusion, and when reading is constantly broken off to refer to another author, the subject is robbed of all coherence, and the various links uniting the arguments are entirely lost sight of. If the student reads only Mill's Logic, and Examination of Hamilton, Bain's Logic and Mental Science, Mansel's Prolegomena Logica and Aldrich, Ribot, Lewes, Ferrier, and perhaps Zeller's Plato and Socrates, and Jouffroy's Lectures, together with the works on the special system adopted, he will find his time fully occupied, and his subjects fully treated. Necessary works.

For Moral Philosophy we should strongly advise, in the first place, a perusal of Mill's Utilitarianism. We offer no opinion upon the justness of any one Moral Philosophy.

Mill's Utilitarianism.

system ; our only task is to give such advice as may conduce to the profitable study of the subject in hand, without committing ourselves to any acquiescence in the philosophical tenets of this or that author. Mill as a Moral Philosopher is certainly not so strong as Mill treating of Logic, but the work in question will be found to contain an admirable exposition and defence of what is probably the most widely adopted system of the day.

Sidgwick.

For a fuller and more philosophical treatment of this, with other questions, Sidgwick's Methods of Ethics may be profitably consulted. Prof. Grote's Examination of Utilitarianism is able, but written

Criticisms.

in an exceedingly dry style. On the other hand, Lecky's Criticism in the introduction to "History of European Morals" is brilliant, but incomplete. A cultured examination of the system is to be found in Jowett's Plato, vol. iv., introduction to the

Bentham.

Philebus. For a defence of the system reference may be made to Bentham's "Principles of Morals and Legislation." As in Logic, so here is it advisable to adopt some definite system, and the student's best plan will be to read through a hand-

Bain's Moral Science.

book of Moral Philosophy. Bain's Moral Science is very valuable, and, as a work of reference, indispensable, though its usefulness is impaired by a singularly uninteresting style. For especial study we may mention chaps. 3 (Part I.), 2 (Book IV., Mental Science), besides the abstracts of the chief Moral systems, which are very accurate and most important. Calderwood is more interesting, but

Butler.

somewhat superficial. The student will probably be advised to dip into Butler's Sermons, but valuable though these are, too much time must not be spent over them. Butler's influence has of late

years vastly declined at Oxford, and though an acquaintance with the outlines of his system is necessary, a knowledge of the sermons themselves may easily be dispensed with. An admirable account of Hobbes' Ethics may be found in Jouffroy's Lectures. Several essays of Hume on Ethical subjects may be read with profit—notably the one entitled, "Why Utility Pleases." Hume.

We think the above works, studied in conjunction with, and reference to, the Republic and Ethics, should be sufficient to acquaint the student with the systems of the most eminent Moral Philosophers.

For Political Philosophy a great number of works may, of course, be read; but we advise the careful study of a very few. For the "Origin and Growth of Society," Maine's "Ancient Law" is the great authority: a most profound, lucid, and interesting work. This should be read more than once, and, if time be found, may be supplemented by Lectures III. and IV. in "Village Communities," and chapters 3, 4, 12, 13, in the "Early History of Institutions." Political Philosophy. Maine.

For the "Sphere and Duties of Government," should be read, in the first place, Humboldt's treatise on the "Sphere and Duties of Government." This work, though extravagant, will be found very useful. Then Mill's "Representative Government," and his noble work "On Liberty" may be read; and much assistance will be derived from Lewis's "Use and Abuse of Political Terms." Buckle's "History of Civilisation"—a most remarkable and eccentric work—may be read in parts. The first volume will be sufficient to give the student a fair idea of the action of Moral and Intellectual Laws. Humboldt. Mill. Lewis. Buckle.

Ancient Politics. It is almost needless to state that some of the chief lessons to be learnt in Political Philosophy may be gained from a careful study of the constitutional questions of Greek and Roman History; and they are so adequately treated and illustrated by Grote and Mommsen, that there will be no excuse for ignorance on these subjects.

Political Economy. For Political Economy, the most approved manual is that of Prof. Fawcett, and this will be found quite sufficient. If the student be much Fawcett. pressed for time, he may be content with Mrs. Fawcett's little book; but a perusal of the larger work is, of course, much more satisfactory. A profound knowledge of this science is naturally not required; it is only necessary to possess an intelligent acquaintance with its leading principles and their grounds. The student may understand the nature of the knowledge demanded by glancing at any of the papers on Moral and Political Philosophy. It will not be dangerous, then, to omit several chapters in Fawcett—*e.g.*, Book II., chapters 5–11; Book III., 3, 8, 9, 11–15; Book IV., 2, 4, 6. We believe that the excision of these chapters will not seriously affect the student's appreciation of the subject. Further changes must be left to his own discretion.

Cairnes. Several of Cairnes' "Essays on some Leading Questions of Political Economy" will repay perusal.

Mill. It is not advisable to read Mill's "Political Economy:" it will be found far too lengthy, unless Political Economy is offered as a special subject, which has been done with success.

We have now discussed all those subjects and books which it is necessary or advisable for the student to offer, and we think that if he follows

our advice, he cannot fail to be successful. Much must be left to his own discretion ; but we repeat our warning against a desultory and omnivorous reading. Such a course may increase his general knowledge, but will not assist him to master those special books which it is necessary to know thoroughly. Let him be on his guard, then, against those well-meaning but mischievous advisers who will recommend him to dip into works on Æsthetics, Theology, Anthropology, or Poetics ; if he attends to their suggestions he will find himself eloquent on Pre-Raphaelitism, but unable to give the context to a passage from the Ethics, or to describe the state of Rome in the time of Catiline. Steady, conscientious reading in the lines here laid down, combined with fair ability, will secure him a Second, if not a First, Class.

Steady reading and discretion necessary for success in the whole.

CHAPTER XIV.

JURISPRUDENCE.

Subjects of Examination.

THE subjects of examination in the School of Jurisprudence will be the following :—

I. General Jurisprudence.

Candidates will be examined in the principles of Jurisprudence, in the theory of Legislation, and in the early history of Legal Institutions ; with special reference to Austin's Lectures, Bentham's Principles of Morals and Legislation, and the works of Sir Henry Maine.

They may also refer to Hobbes' Leviathan, Books I. and II., and to Savigny's System des heutigen römischen Rechts, Vol. I.

II. History of English Law.

(*a*) History of Constitutional Law.

Candidates will be expected to have mastered the leading principles of existing Constitutional Law, and, in particular, to show a knowledge of the following topics :—

The Legislative power of Parliament, the modes in which it is exercised, and its extent as to Territory and Persons ;

The Prerogatives of the Crown, the Privileges of the Houses of Parliament ;

The constitutional position of—the Privy Council, the Ministers of the Crown, the Established Church, the Courts of Law, and the Armed Forces.

They must possess such an acquaintance with the history of the above as is necessary to explain their present character and working. They are

recommended to refer to the Constitutional portions of Blackstone's or Stephen's Commentaries, Mr. Stubbs' Documents illustrative of English History, Hallam's Constitutional History, and Sir T. E. May's Constitutional History; and are required to read carefully the following Statutes :—

Constitutions of Clarendon.

Magna Charta.

Statute of Westminster, II., 13 E. I., Stat. I., c. 24.

Petition of Right.

Habeas Corpus Act, 31 Car. II., c. 2.

Bill of Rights, 1 W. and M., sess. 2, 2.

Act of Settlement, 12 and 13 W. III., c. 2.

(*b*) History of the Law of Real Property.

This subject is to be studied in Blackstone's Commentaries, Book II., or Stephen's Commentaries, Vol. I., Book II., Part i., and Mr. Digby's Introduction to the History of the Law of Real Property. The Principal Statutes referred to in the latter book should be mastered, and reference may with advantage be made to Mr. Williams' Treatise on the Law of Real Property.

III. Roman Law.

The Institutes of Gaius.

The Institutes of the Emperor Justinian.

Candidates are expected to be acquainted with the History of Roman Legislation and Roman Judicial Institutions.

IV. English Law.

The Principles of the Law of Contracts.

V. International Law.

(*a*) The outlines of International Law as a system.

(*b*) The history of the Law relating to Seas, Ships, and Navigable Rivers in time of peace.

Students are recommended to read Woolsey's Introduction, and Heffter's Europäisches Volkerrecht (in German or French), referring also to Wheaton's Elements, or to the Law of Nations by Sir Travers Twiss. Upon subject (*b*) they may consult Ortolan, Diplomatie de la Mer, livre deuxième.

The above are the subjects for study at present embraced by this School. Of course these subjects depend entirely on the discretion of the Board of Studies, and may be varied at their will.

The above syllabus is prescribed by the last regulations issued by the board, and will remain in force until further notice. It must be understood that, with the exception of Gaius, Justinian, and the specified Acts of Parliament, none of the matter of the examination is required to be studied textually. The authorities mentioned in the regulations are only intended to define to some extent the nature of the topics of the examination, and to indicate the sources of information.

Preliminary remarks.

The student who commences the study of law at Oxford must not allow himself to be deluded into the notion that the School of Jurisprudence is an easy one. It is not unusual to hear scholars, whose lives have been almost exclusively devoted to classical or mathematical studies, speak disparagingly of any School which may be, relatively to their own, termed technical. But this is an opinion which the law student will quickly discover to be based on a total ignorance of the subject ; and he will find that a course of study which has laid the foundation for many a brilliant legal career is one which will require all the ability and application he can devote to it.

The School not an easy one.

To proceed, then, to a consideration of the above syllabus of subjects. The student will naturally seek to know which subject should engage his attention first. We do not recommend him to follow implicitly the order given in the above list. It might seem a very natural plan to commence his legal studies with a review of General Jurisprudence. But he will find that the references to Roman Law made by the authors whom he must study on the subject of Jurisprudence, are so numerous, that a certain amount of Roman Law must be known as a preliminary. In fact, with regard to every subject in the syllabus, with the exception of English Constitutional Law, he will find, to a greater or less extent, that such an acquaintance with Roman Law is certainly a great assistance to him, and possibly may be essential for an intelligent appreciation of the subject under consideration. We therefore advise the student to commence with Roman Law. We must not be understood to advise him not to pass to any other subject until he has, to the best of his ability, mastered this branch: such a course would be wearisome and monotonous; we only recommend him to carefully follow the hints we shall now give him on the study of Roman Law before he applies himself to other matters. It is not possible to overestimate the importance of an accurate acquaintance with this branch of legal learning: it is a necessary preliminary to the study of other branches, and it is the main foundation of the Continental systems. It is now receiving at Oxford and at the Inns of Court a degree of attention never before given by English lawyers.

Order and method of work.

Roman Law to be the first study.

We shall now discuss in detail the subjects.

Roman Law.

I. Roman Law.

We recommend the student to commence his study of Roman Law by reading the chapter in Maine. Maine's Village Communities, entitled "Roman Law and Legal Education." This shows the historical connexion between Roman and English Law; its importance as a factor in the production of general human knowledge; its influence on Moral Philosophy; the force of language it employs in order to convey legal conceptions; its importance as a key to the understanding of International Law; its connexion with Continental Law; the assistance it may render in the work of the Codification of the Law; and the importance of the position it occupies as an intermediate study between Classical Literature and English Law.

General Introduction.

The student should then proceed to some work which may give him a general introduction to Roman Law, and we can advise no better one Hadley. than Hadley's "Introduction to the Study of Roman Law." He should then take in hand Mear. Mear's "Analysis of Ortolan's Institutes of Justinian," Parts I. and II., which give an able sketch of the history of Roman Legislation, and a generalisation of Roman Law. Then he must read very carefully Poste's edition of Gaius, and then Sandars' edition of the Institutes of Justinian. The student must give great care and attention to these works. About 400 years elapsed between the time when Gaius wrote his commentary, and the date when Justinian published his Institutes. It is needless to say that many changes took place in Roman Law during this period; moreover, great and radical alterations were devised by Justinian himself. The difficulty is to bear in mind the

Gaius and Justinian to be read with great care.

periods at which these changes were made, with their nature and extent. Now it is an advantage for the student that the Institutes of Justinian are based upon the model of Gaius, although his division of the law is not exactly the same. We therefore advise the student to read Gaius first, commencing with Poste's introduction, and then reading the text and the commentary on the several paragraphs of the text as they are referred to by number. Let him in this way go through Book I. of Gaius, entitled "De Personis." Then let him read Section I. of Sandars' Introduction to Justinian, entitled "Persons;" and then read Justinian, Book I., which is, like Book I. of Gaius, on the Law of Persons. Then he should study Book II. of Gaius, and Poste's Commentary as above; followed by Sandars' Introduction Sections II. and III. down to the end of paragraph 76, and Justinian, Book II., which, like the second book of Gaius, is on the Law of Things and Succession by Will. Then Gaius, Book III., and the commentary should be taken in hand, and after this Sandars' Introduction, Section III., paragraph 77, and Section IV., with Justinian, Book III. and Book IV. to the end of Title V., which covers the subjects in Gaius, Book III.—viz., Intestate Succession, and the Law of Obligations. Then he will have at length reached the concluding branch, the Law of Actions, which he will find in Gaius, Book IV. and Commentary, Sandars' Introduction, Section V., and Justinian commencing at Title VI. of Book IV. and reading to the end. The commentary of Mr. Sandars should also be read throughout under the various paragraphs of the text to which it refers.

Order of reading.

We think that by following these suggestions the student will avoid confusion, and be in a fair way to master one branch at a time. When he has gone through this course he will derive much assistance in "dovetailing" (so to speak) the two authors from a small book by Mr. Seymour Harris, entitled "The Elements of Roman Law Summarised," and also from that portion of Mear's Analysis following Parts I. and II.

General Jurisprudence.

II. General Jurisprudence.

When the student has carefully gone through the above course, he may turn his attention to General Jurisprudence. For this there are three authors specially named, Austin, Bentham, and Maine; and reference is advised to the first two books of Hobbes' Leviathan, and to Savigny. We recommend the student to read first Bentham, upon whom Austin comments, and whom he amplifies, and to some extent corrects. Two works of Bentham must be read, the "Principles of Morals and Legislation," and next the "Theory of Legislation." The former only is mentioned in the regulations, but both should be read, as it is clear that questions are set from each. After this Austin's Jurisprudence (omitting Lectures II., III., IV., of Vol. I., or at least reading them only once) should be carefully studied. This author's style is verbose and very tautological, almost repulsively so, according to Sir Henry Maine. A student with but little time at his disposal might, with the exercise of some discrimination, omit large portions. A safer plan, however, is to read Campbell's "Student's Austin," which contains everything of importance, excluding unnecessary portions.

Bentham.

Austin.

After Austin the student must study with the

closest attention the works of Sir H. Maine. It is impossible to overrate the importance of the three books of this author—viz., "Ancient Law," the "Early History of Institutions," and "Village Communities." Moreover, the weight attached by the Examiners to an accurate knowledge of these books is very considerable. To a vast amount of historical and antiquarian knowledge, and to a wide philosophic grasp, Sir Henry Maine adds the power of conveying his thoughts in a singularly interesting and lucid style. This is at once his chief charm and the student's snare. The style is so flowing, and at the same time the matter is so compressed—so much is conveyed in a few roundly turned words—that the student often misses the point, and is somewhat astonished at the difficulty he experiences when called upon to reproduce his author's arguments. He may glide through page after page with rapidity and ease, and yet in the end lose the thread of the whole. How little is really learnt from such a perusal will be understood by the student when he comes to analyse Maine, a work of some difficulty, for the author's style is extremely concise. An excellent plan is to write a running analysis in pencil at the head of every page. This will greatly assist a fuller analysis, and will prove useful for purposes of reference; it insures, at any rate, a pause in reading, and suggests the inquiry whether the full meaning has been caught.

Maine's works most important.

Care necessary in reading Maine.

The student will naturally inquire why, if Maine possesses all the excellencies we have attributed to him, he should not be read first. The excellencies are themselves the ground on which we assign to him his present place. His own mind is so stored

with legal knowledge, and of this he presupposes so large an amount in his readers, that generally his works cannot be appreciatively read unless the student possesses some acquaintance with general jurisprudence. Again, the charm of his style is less likely to beguile the student if the latter has some preliminary knowledge of the words, phrases, and schools of thought on which Maine comments. Further, his criticisms range over the entire subjects of jurisprudence and Roman law, with which, therefore, some acquaintance is necessary. But we must not be understood to advise the study of these subjects *ad nauseam* before Maine is touched. Rather we recommend the student to go carefully through the curriculum we have suggested with regard to them, and then to find out what light Sir Henry Maine has thrown upon them.

This author's works bear chiefly on Jurisprudence, Roman Law, and Real Property Law. The portions bearing on Jurisprudence are roughly: Ancient Law, Chapters 1–5; Early Institutions, 12 and 13; Village Communities, 1 and 2.

Those bearing on Roman Law are: Ancient Law, Chapter 6 to the end; Early Institutions, 9–11.

Those bearing on Real Property Law are: Early Institutions, Chapters 1–8; Village Communities, Chapters 3–6.

With reference to "Village Communities" we recommend the student to read the lecture entitled, "The Effects of Observation of India on Modern European Thought," and to omit the three addresses to the University of Calcutta and the lecture on "The Theory of Evidence."

Hobbes. After Sir Henry Maine, Hobbes may be read.

He is, of course, far anterior to Austin or Bentham; but his style is peculiar, and he is better understood after Austin. Then Savigny may be taken in hand. It is not easy to procure an English translation of this author, but French translations are numerous. There are, however, English translations at Oxford—one in the Codrington Library at All Souls', and in the Libraries of Wadham, Queen's, and Exeter Colleges respectively. Savigny.

III. History of English Law. History of English Law.

This subject is divided into two branches: (*a*) Constitutional Law, (*b*) History of the Law of Real Property.

With regard to the first the regulations are very precise, and we shall only give a few references to the authorities on the different statutes.

Constitutions of Clarendon. Stubbs' Const. History, I., 458–466, 617–18; II., 169; Stubbs' Select Charters, 135; Hallam's Middle Ages, II., 221–225, 414; Blackstone, IV., 562; III., 405.

Magna Charta. Stubbs' S. C., 289, 339, 344, 353; Const. Hist., I., 530–539; Blackstone, II., 478; IV., 283, 523, 563–565; I., 69, 185, 195, 197, 202; III., 388, 415; Hallam's M. A., II., 318–335.

Statute of Westminster.

Petition of Right. Stubbs' S. C., 515; Hallam, I., 389–394, 418; Stephen's, I., 167; II., 479.

Habeas Corpus Act. Stubbs' S. C., 517; Stephen's, I., 145–150; II., 479; III., 710–719; IV., 418, 579; Hallam's Const. Hist., I., 382–387, 390; II., 2, 398; III., 10–15.

Bill of Rights. Stubbs' S. C., 523; Stephen's, II., 479; Hallam's Const. Hist., III., 102–107.

Act of Settlement. Stubbs, S.C., 528; Stephen's,

II., 480, 345, 420, 469 ; IV., 253, 581 ; Hallam's C. H., III., 92, 179–197 ; II., 414–417.

Assize of Clarendon. Stubbs' S. C., 141 ; C. H., 469–471, 513–515, 618.

Confirmatio Chartorum. Stubbs' S. C., 496.

The student will find it most desirable to possess an accurate acquaintance with the fourth book of Stephen's Commentaries.

(*b.*)

Law of Contracts.

IV. English Law. The principles of the Law of Contracts.

For this subject Pollock's Principles of the Law of Contract is enough, though Chitty's (or Leathe's) work may be studied with advantage if the student has any time to spare.

International Law.

V. We now come to the last subject to be studied by the student, International Law. The regulations are here again precise, and further advice is scarcely needed. But we should advise the student not to devote too much time and attention to this subject. If he is at all pressed he should be content with knowing Woolsey's Introduction, and with reading over the notes of the lectures he may have attended. If there is time to read a second book we recommend Sir Travers Twiss.

Lectures.

We have now spoken on all the subjects which it is necessary for the student to offer. With regard to them generally we may say that he will find it advisable to attend a fair number of lectures. Of the lectures delivered by his College Tutor it is unnecessary to speak, for attendance is more or less compulsory. But we advise him to attend regularly the lectures delivered by the University Professors. The lectures on International Law

delivered by the Chichele Professor at All Souls', and the lectures on Real Property, the Law of Contracts, and Constitutional Law, delivered by the Vinerian Reader, do not involve the expenditure of an unreasonable amount of time, and will certainly prove very profitable. He should also not fail to attend the lectures on Roman Law by the Regius Professor of Civil Law, and those of the Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence.

Importance of making analyses.

Finally, on the whole subject, we would impress upon the student the importance of making a careful analysis of every book he essays to master. Law is not a subject on which the faculty of fine writing can be brought in play. It is a mixture of antiquarian research, of history ancient and modern, of Acts of Parliament, of devised cases, of dry legal maxims and rules. Of such matters a rhetorical style is not the proper exponent. The genius of Sir Henry Maine has thrown a lustre on all these subjects of investigation, but the student should not attempt to emulate his style. If he attains to an accurate and intelligent acquaintance with all those subjects we have discussed, he will probably satisfy the Examiners, and ought to satisfy himself. To this end, to attain such accurate knowledge, we strongly advise him to analyse for himself every subject to which he applies his mind.

CHAPTER XV.

MODERN HISTORY.

CANDIDATES for this School must offer the following :—

Subjects of examination.

I. The History of England to the Accession of Queen Victoria.

II. One of the following periods of general History, to be studied in the best modern writers.

1. A.D. 476–1272.
2. A.D. 1000–1519.
3. A.D. 1328–1648.
4. A.D. 1643–1815.

III. In the case of those candidates who aim at a place in the First or Second Class, a special portion of History or Historical subject, carefully studied with reference to original authorities.

A. The following subjects or portions of History are suggested by the Board for the option of candidates :—

1. The Age of Charles the Great and his Dynasty.

2. The contest concerning investitures (from the rise of Hildebrand to the Concordat of Worms).

3. The Age of Lewis the Eleventh and Charles the Eighth.

4. The Great Rebellion (down to the Restoration).

5. The Establishment of the English Power in India (A.D. 1784–1806).

6. The French Revolution (down to the First Consulate).

B. Candidates proposing to offer any other Historical subject must give notice six months before the examination, and obtain the approval of the Board of Studies. Every application by a candidate proposing to offer a special subject or period not included in the list suggested must be accompanied by a statement of the books, documents, and other authorities which the candidate proposes to use.

C. The following portions of Legal Study may be substituted by candidates for the special portion of History or Historical subject required to be offered :—

1. The History of the Law of Real Property.
2. The General History of International Law.

D. In the case of a candidate offering a special subject or portion of History, other than the above suggested subjects numbered four and five, such special subject or portion must fall within the period of General History offered by him.

[For authorities, *vide* Statutes].

A subject or period of Literature may, at the option of candidates, be offered in addition to the above-mentioned stated subjects of examination. Under this head candidates may offer any one of the following :—

1. The Elizabethan Period of Literature, the Historical Plays of Shakespeare to be studied minutely.
2. The Age of Lewis the Fourteenth, the Plays of Molière to be studied minutely.
3. The Age of Dante, the Purgatorio to be studied minutely.

Candidates desiring to offer any other period or subject of a like character must obtain the leave

of the Board six months before the examination.

General Remarks. The benefit of any remarks which might be made concerning this School is considerably neutralised by the very full directions for historical study which are given in the Statutes. The student will find that on each period the authorities and text-books are specified, and it is impossible here to do more than mention a few additional works likely to promote intelligent reading, together with some few suggestions on the method of study.

First, then, if he aims at high Honours, the student must offer :—

I. The General History of England, to 1837.

II. A period of General History.

III. A special portion of History.

(or) A portion of Legal Study.

A subject or period of Literature may be offered, but is not necessary.

Periods. It is almost impossible to give definite advice as to the choice of a period of General History ; so much may be said for each, and their merits are fairly balanced. Probably no one who intends to read for the History School will be without some interest in a certain period ; and the student will naturally and properly make his selection in accordance with his tastes.

The selection of a special period of History is not so difficult, for many men will be debarred from several of the periods by the necessity of studying the French or Latin authorities which illustrate them. Thus they will at once set aside the first, second, third, and sixth periods. Their decision must now lie between the Great Rebellion, and the English Power in India, and will be deter-

mined by their tastes or the character of their probable profession.

It is certainly not advisable to offer a special period of Literature, unless the student has some knowledge of such. The work to be done is already enormous, and, in the time allowed, it would be impossible to pay proper attention to all the subjects. Thus a man would run the risk of mediocrity in each, and of failure in the aggregate.

Lectures.

Of lectures there are always a certain number which the student must attend, and these he will be able to choose for himself. History lectures are very unequal, and a man will often find that he is listening to a mere repetition of a standard work, while not seldom he may gain a large amount of useful knowledge. Lectures are especially valuable where a period is illustrated by no handy work; and some labour is thus saved by gaining an analysis and summary of a period from the lecturer in place of being obliged to make such for oneself. The student will probably find some means of taking down the chief points of the lecture, and the notes so gained will always prove valuable as a *résumé* to be read before entering the Schools.

Analyses.

In the History School, especially, will industry in filling note-books and making analyses always prove remunerative. It is almost impossible to study History intelligently and accurately without such aids, and their value in the last Term cannot be over-estimated. The system may possibly be carried too far, or used in a wrong direction; but few will be able to commit the first error, while only ordinary discretion is needed to guard against the second.

Tutors. The value of a good Tutor is very evident. Amid the mass of authorities and books which may be read, the student will often lose himself, and he will find that the advice of his Tutor on these subjects is very useful. Essays and papers, too, are to be written for the Tutor, who will thus exert an influence over the studies of the pupil, note his progress, and point out the line of reading necessary. To him, then, we may leave all further suggestions.

With regard to books, the following may be recommended :—

Constit. History. I. Constitutional History of England. Stubbs' Select Charters and Constitutional History ; Hallam's Constitutional History ; May's Constitutional History.

General History of England. II. General History of England.

On the General History of England there are two works which are indispensable. Green's Short History of the English People is an exceedingly brilliant and interesting book, paying special attention to the social side of English History and to home affairs. Its value is unfortunately marred by serious inaccuracies in matters of detail, against which the student must be on his guard. In addition to this he must read Bright's School History, a very full and able book. These two works should prove quite sufficient for the general outlines, and both authors give lists of authorities and works bearing on particular subjects and periods.

Works recommended. For the early history it will be necessary to read Freeman's Old English History, and his great work on the Norman Conquest. Ranke's English History (chiefly in the seventeenth century) has

been translated into English, and is quite indispensable. The Examiners naturally attach great weight to a thorough knowledge of such an important work.

S. R. Gardiner's works on England under Charles I. are very valuable, and should be read if time allows. As a summary the student may read the same author's "Puritan Revolution," and "Thirty Years' War."

Macaulay's History must of course be studied, and with care, lest the student be too much carried away by the brilliance and eloquence of the narrative.

Lord Mahon's History of England is valuable, and it may be supplemented by Lecky's History, which throws a new light on many points. In the latter author special attention should be paid to the chapter on Irish affairs.

The prefaces to the Rolls Series are important. They are written by competent scholars, and give in a concise form all that is known of the author of whom they treat, thus forming a trustworthy history of the time. Of this series the prefaces to the lives of Becket and Roger of Hoveden are particularly valuable.

The Epochs of Modern History are most useful little works and generally valuable. We may specially mention Stubbs' Early Plantagenets; Gairdner's York and Lancaster; Seebohm's Protestant Reformation; Church's Beginnings of the Middle Ages.

Gairdner's work on Richard III., and his Introduction to the Paston Letters, should also be read.

Blaauw's Barons' War, and "The Greatest of

the Plantagenets," may be studied; and Longman's Edward III. is worthy of reference.

It should be carefully noticed that the social and literary history, and the history of the growth of the English Colonies and Dependencies, are included under the head of General History.

In the special subjects and periods a very close and accurate study of the authorities is necessary. The words and opinions of the authors must be quoted, defended, or criticised, so that a verbal study is indispensable.

A knowledge of Geography is, of course, a necessary condition of proper historical study, and the student should always have at hand for reference a good manual of Geography and an Historical Atlas. The Geography generally recommended is the French one of Lavallée.* Spruner's large Historical Atlas (now in course of re-issue) is the only really good one, but its price will place it beyond the reach of many.† A smaller Atlas by Wolff is less expensive (14*s.*) and very good as far as it goes; it includes little besides Central Europe.

Geography.

For General Geography, Keith Johnston's "Handy Royal Atlas" is excellent.

Political Economy may be studied in Fawcett or Mill.

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* There is an English translation, but it is out of print. The original is only 3*s.* 6*d.*

† The parts are 5*s.*; there are to be twenty-three parts for Europe alone. The parts may be procured separately.

CHAPTER XVI.

NATURAL SCIENCE.

Preliminary Honour Examination.

Subjects of examination.

1. MECHANICS and Physics.

Mechanics to the extent represented by Newth's "First Book of Natural Philosophy," and the first four books of Ganot's "Physics." Acoustics, Heat, Light, Magnetism, and Electricity, as represented by Ganot's "Physics."

Preliminary.

2. Chemistry.

The general principles of Chemistry, and the properties of the better known elements and compounds (excepting such as are included under Organic Chemistry), as treated of in any one of the following Manuals :—

Williamson's Chemistry for Students,
Roscoe's Lessons in Elementary Chemistry,
Wilson's Inorganic Chemistry,
Fownes' Manual of Chemistry, or more fully in
Miller's Elements of Chemistry, Vol. II.

The practical examination will comprise the analysis of single substances, and such elementary exercises in chemical manipulation as are included in Harcourt and Madan's Exercises in Practical Chemistry, Part I.

Final Honour Examination. Final.

The Final Honour Examination comprises three General Subjects—viz.,

I. Physics. II. Chemistry. III. Biology.

And the following Special Subjects, which may be taken in as supplementary to one or more of the General Subjects :—

a. Crystallography and Mineralogy. The former as included under the General Subjects of Physics and Chemistry, the latter as included under Chemistry.

b. Geology and Palæontology. The former as included under the three General Subjects, the latter as included under Biology.

c. Zoology,
d. Botany, } as subjects included under Biology.

The several sections which follow deal with the manner in which each separate subject, whether general or special, is to be studied by a candidate for Honours.

The Board desire it to be understood that a knowledge of the subjects, based on practical work as well as knowledge gathered from books, will always be required at the Examinations in this School.

General Subjects.

I. Physics.

A candidate who offers himself in the Final Honour Examination for examination in Physics as his general subject shall be required to show an accurate general knowledge of Physics, and he shall be allowed to present himself, in addition, for a more detailed examination in one or more of the following branches of Physics: Acoustics, Heat, Light, Electricity, and Magnetism.

It is necessary that a student of Physics should have at least an elementary knowledge of Geometry, Algebra, and Mechanics. Jamin's "Cours

de Physique," last edition, in 3 vols., may be mentioned as a good text-book on general Physics. Students are, however, advised to consult their Tutors or the Professor of Experimental Philosophy with respect to the books to be read, inasmuch as the most desirable course of study must depend on the mathematical knowledge of each individual.

II. Candidates who offer themselves for examination in chemistry will be expected to show an acquaintance with the following subjects :—

I. Chemical Physics.

II. Inorganic Chemistry.

III. Organic Chemistry.

IV. General and Theoretical Chemistry.

There will also be a Practical Examination, which will comprise—

V. The Qualitative Analysis of Inorganic Substances.

VI. The Quantitative Analysis of Inorganic Substances.

The use of books will be allowed to candidates in the examination in Quantitative Analysis.

III. Biology.

1. Candidates who offer themselves for examination in Biology will be expected to show an acquaintance, firstly, with General and Comparative Anatomy and Histology (under these terms vegetable structures are included); secondly, with Human and Comparative Physiology, inclusive of Physiological Chemistry; and thirdly, with the General Philosophy of the Subject.

2. In these subjects the candidates will be examined both by paper work and practically; and will be required to give evidence of being

competent not merely to verify and describe specimens already prepared for naked-eye or microscopic demonstration as the case may be, but also to prepare such or similar specimens themselves.

3. Candidates may, in addition to the amount of work indicated in the preceding paragraphs, bring up any of the special subjects contained in the list appended below. A candidate who offers himself for examination in a special subject will be expected to show, firstly, a detailed practical acquaintance with specimens illustrating that subject, for which purpose the catalogues in the University Museum can be made available; and secondly, exact knowledge of some one or more monographs treating of it. Excellence, however, in a special subject will not compensate for failure in any essential part of the general examination.

Every candidate must state, at the time of entering his name for examination, what special subject, if any, he takes in.

A student who offers himself for examination in a special subject is referred to the following provisional list:—

a. Comparative Osteology.

b. The Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of the Organs of Circulation and Respiration.

c. The Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of the Organs of Digestion.

d. The Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of the Nervous System.

e. The Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of the Reproductive Systems.

f. Ethnology.

[For the remaining recommendations with regard to books, the student is referred to the Statutes.]

There are then three subjects in this School in which the student may be examined for final Honours—viz., Physics, Chemistry, and Biology. It is certainly not advisable to attempt more than one of these: all are vast subjects, and are growing more vast every successive year. It is quite possible to gain a First Class by a sound knowledge of one of these subjects.

The Preliminary Examinations in Chemistry and Physics may be taken together or separately at any time after Moderations have been passed; if taken at the same time as the Final Examinations they will count for the Class. These Preliminary Examinations rank with the Final Pass Schools, so that if the student is prevented from proceeding to the Science Finals, having passed these preliminaries, he will have passed two out of the three required for the Pass Schools.

Physics.

Physics.—For this subject to be studied properly a fair knowledge of Mathematics, Algebra, Geometry, and Mechanics is necessary. Jamin's "Cours de Physique" is the best text-book; besides this the student should read Airy's Undulatory Theory of Optics, Lloyd's Wave Theory of Light, Aldis on Fresnel's Theory of Double Refraction, Tait's Thermodynamics, Saint-Robert's Thermodynamique, Clerk Maxwell's Theory of Heat, Balfour Stewart's Heat, Parkinson's Optics, Fleming Jenkins' Electricity and Magnetism, Clerk Maxwell's Electricity.

Heat and Light are generally taken as Special Subjects. Of course the student will attend the Clarendon Laboratory, and the Professor of Experimental Philosophy will give him all necessary advice. All lectures of this Professor should be attended.

Biology. *Biology.*—The student who selects Biology as his subject should first seek the advice of the Linacre Professor, who will give him all necessary information on his studies.

He will first proceed to study the Osteology of the human frame, and his work will be carried on during the morning and afternoon at the Laboratory. On this subject the text-book is Sharpey in Quain's Anatomy.

It will be well for the student to employ those hours when he is disengaged in reading Michael Foster,* and Huxley's Physiology. Carpenter's Comparative Physiology may be consulted if time be found.

Secondly, he will proceed to the dissection of various animals, and here he will use Rolleston's Forms of Animal Life.

Then finally he will study the specimens in the Court with the aid of the Catalogues of the Oxford Museum. Here he should read—1. Flower's Osteology of Mammalia. 2. Huxley's Anatomy of Vertebrated Animals. 3. Gegenbaur's Grundzüge der Vergl. Anatomie.

Literature of Biology. These works are technical and special to one branch of study, and the student will find it necessary to read in addition to them some works on the General Philosophy of Biology.

The following may be safely recommended :—Darwin's Origin of Species, Van der Hoeven's Philosophia Zoologica, Herbert Spencer's Principles of Biology, Lyell's Principles of Geology, chaps. 34–41, Wallace's Distribution of Animals.

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* Last edition, with plates. The student should be careful to procure the last editions of all the above works.

APPENDIX I.

THE Commissioners appointed by Parliament to inquire into the revenues, &c., of the University of Oxford—viz., Lord Selborne, the Earl of Redesdale, the Right Honourable Montagu Bernard, D.C.L., Mr. Justice Grove, the Rev. James Bellamy, D.D., President of S. John's College, Mr. Henry John Stephen Smith, Savilian Professor of Geometry, and Mr. Mathew White Ridley—have issued their report to the Vice-Chancellor, who has officially made it known ; as also the following official communication from the secretaries, the Rev. T. Vere Bayne, Christ Church, and Mr. Thomas Dallin, Queen's. The following is the statement :—

OXFORD, *April 25th*, 1878.

SIR,—We are instructed by the University of Oxford Commissioners to transmit to you the accompanying statement, which has been framed by them in accordance with the provisions of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Act, 1877 : we are further instructed to request that you will have the goodness to make the statement publicly known in the University, in such manner as you may deem most convenient. We, the University of Oxford Commissioners, being required by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge Act, 1877, before approving any statute made by any College under the same Act, to publish a statement with respect to the main purposes relating to the University for which, in our opinion, pro-

vision should be made under the Act, the sources from which funds for those purposes should be obtained, and the principles on which payments from the Colleges for those purposes should be contributed, do hereby publish the following statement:—

I. As to the main purposes relative to the University for which provision should be made under the Act. (A.) The first in order of these purposes is, in our opinion, the extension and proper endowment of the Professorate, and the better organisation of the University teaching. As to which two principal objects should be kept in view, the due representation at Oxford of every considerable branch of knowledge, the advancement of which can be effectually promoted by the University as a place either of education or of learning and research, and the due participation of the University itself, as distinct from its Colleges, in the direction and improvement of the studies of its undergraduates and other students, we are unable to adopt the views of those who would desire to transfer to the University the whole or the chief part of the teaching work now done by the Colleges, either separately or by means of inter-collegiate arrangements. We think that the combination of intellectual with moral influence and discipline which is thus obtained is extremely valuable, and that the system of inter-collegiate arrangements which has of late years grown up spontaneously, and attained a large development, has produced good results: but we also think that among the recognised studies of the University, there are some (such as Natural Science, and in a less degree Law) for which the Colleges cannot be expected to make adequate provision, either without or by means of those inter-collegiate arrangements: and with respect even to those studies to which it is best adapted. The system of inter-collegiate arrangements (besides being precarious and hitherto dependent for the extent of its operation upon the will of each particular College) appears to us to be deficient in organisation and economy of power, and to be hardly adequate to the

wants of the highest class of students, who look beyond University examinations, and we think it would be susceptible of improvement if it were placed—as, under proper regulation, it might be—in more direct relations of concert and co-operation with teachers accredited by, and responsible to, the University. As steps towards the attainment of that end, we think it desirable that the Professors of these subjects at least which are within any of the recognised courses of University study should become, by virtue of their office, members of the governing bodies of the Colleges to which they belong, or from the funds of which their emoluments are derived or augmented, and that (in accordance with a late recommendation of the Hebdomadal Council) the University should establish several new Readerships.

Many of the existing Professorships are inadequately endowed, and ought to have their emoluments increased. Of a few the emoluments are in excess of what we think necessary. There are others the constitution, designation, and duties of which may, when they become vacant, be advantageously modified. We also think that some new Chairs should be established and adequately endowed.

With this preface, and in order to make our statement more useful to the University and the Colleges, we proceed to explain our present views as to the extent of the increase for which it may be desirable to make early provision both in the staff and in the emoluments of the University teachers. These views have been formed on a consideration of the scheme proposed in 1877, by the Hebdomadal Council of the University, coupled with the evidence which we have received. It will be understood that they are not stated as final: they are subject to reconsideration throughout, and are now expressed for the sake of convenience only. It must, indeed, be remembered that nothing in this statement is final, so as to interfere with the exercise by us hereafter, according to our discretion, of any of the powers conferred upon us by the Act. Stipends of the Professors (other than those

of the Theological faculty) should, in our opinion, be of varying amounts, according to the relation of their several subjects to the studies of the University, and to other circumstances material to be considered. Those of the following Chairs should, we think, be augmented so that the lowest of them should be not less than 700*l.*, nor the highest more than 900*l.* per annum—viz., (1) Greek, (2) Latin, (3) Comparative Philology, (4) Modern History, (5) Civil Law, (6) Moral Philosophy, (7) Moral and Metaphysical Philosophy, (8) Logic, (9) Astronomy, (10) Geometry, (11) Natural Philosophy, (12) Chemistry. We should also assign stipends varying between the same limits to the following Chairs, constituted by division or modification of existing foundations—viz., (13) Ancient Greek History, (14) Ancient Roman History (dividing between those two Chairs the subjects of the present Chair of Ancient History), (15) English History, so defining the subjects of the Chichele Professorship of Modern History, and reducing its emoluments, (16) Constitutional Law and Legal History, instead of the present subject of the Corpus Professorship of International Law, and Comparative Jurisprudence, instead of the present subjects of the Chichele Professorship of International Law, reducing its emoluments, (18) English Law, consolidating the Vinerian Professorship and Vinerian Readership, (19 and 20) Physics, dividing between those two Chairs the subject of the present Chair of Experimental Philosophy, (21) Physiology, (22) Human and Comparative Anatomy, dividing between those two Chairs the subjects of the present Linacre Professorship. Stipends varying between the same limits should also be assigned to the following new Chairs which, we think, ought to be established, (23) English Language and Literature, (24) Pure Mathematics, (25) Mechanics and Engineering.

The stipends of the following Chairs should, we think, be augmented so that the lowest of them should not be less than 400*l.*, nor the highest more than 500*l.* per

annum:—(1) Anglo-Saxon, (2) Political Economy, (3) Medicine, (4) Botany, (5) Zoology, (6) Geology, (7) Mineralogy. We should also propose to assign stipends varying between the same limits to the following Chairs:—(8) Arabic, Syriac, and Chaldean (consolidating the Laudian Chair with the Lord Almoner's Readership, (9) Celtic. Also to the following new Chairs:—(10) Persian and Zend, (11) Romance or New Latin Languages, (12) Classical Archæology.

We assume that the Professors of all the above-mentioned subjects would be under some definite obligation of residence which might vary in different cases. The Chairs of Music and Poetry should have their stipend augmented to 200*l.* per annum, with perhaps some increase of duties. We think it unnecessary to mention those Professorships as to which we propose no change. In case of any difficulty in supplying a vacancy in any Chair requiring qualifications not ordinarily found among the resident members of the University, there should be power given to keep the vacancy open till a fit appointment can conveniently be made. In assigning to the Regius Professorship of Medicine a stipend upon the lower scale we have assumed that the Professor would, as heretofore, be at liberty to take private practice. The evidence and opinions which we have received lead us to the conclusion that it is expedient to develop as much as possible those branches of scientific instruction which are introductory and preliminary to medicine rather than to attempt the establishment of a practical School of Medicine in Oxford.

The question of the manner in which endowment of the Clinical Professorship may be made most useful may be reserved for future consideration. Besides the above addition to the staff and endowment of the Professorate, we contemplate such an increase of the stipends of the existing Readerships in Ancient History and in Indian Law as will make them not less than 400*l.* per annum, and also the creation of nine new Readerships with

similar stipends—viz., four in the Classical Languages, one in Ancient History, two in Modern History, one in Roman, and one in English Law. It may be desirable to provide a Reader in Human Anatomy as assistant to the Professor of Human and Comparative Anatomy, with a stipend of from 250*l.* to 300*l.* a year; and we think there should also be a Reader, with a present stipend of 400*l.* per annum, in Invertebrate Anatomy, whose office upon a vacancy in the Professorship of Zoology should be united to that Chair, with such an increase in the emoluments of the Professor as may make them equal to those of the Chair of Human and Comparative Anatomy, conditionally on his undertaking the additional duty. Additional Demonstrators appear to be required in several departments of Natural Science, who in most cases may best be paid by fees, with supplementary grants, when needful, from the University chest. Readers and Demonstrators should hold by terminable appointments, renewable from time to time.

The Divinity and Hebrew Chairs have not been overlooked by us. The augmentation of the Chair of Exegesis, and the establishment of Readerships in the Theological Faculty, may probably be desirable, but as the resources available for such purposes are specially limited by the Act we think it unnecessary now to go into further particulars on that subject.

(B.) Another main purpose relative to the University, for which we think provision should be made under the Act, is the better maintenance of the Bodleian Library. We estimate that for this purpose, in addition to the present endowment of the Library funds (of which we assume that 500*l.* a year will cease when the catalogue is completed), a fixed annual sum of at least 3000*l.* ought to be provided. Another important purpose is the formation and maintenance of a Museum of Classical Art and Archæology (understanding these words not in a narrow or technical sense). We have not attempted to estimate the cost of the establishment of such a

Museum, or of the purchases of antiquities, casts, or other works of art which may be necessary for that purpose. This, we think, must necessarily be defrayed out of the general revenues of the University, or the common fund hereinafter mentioned, when sufficient to provide for such an expenditure. But for the proper maintenance of the Museum when formed an annual sum will be necessary, which cannot be less than 500*l.* per annum.

In connexion with the foregoing subjects we have considered the question of such new buildings, alterations of existing buildings, and purchases of plant, scientific apparatus, &c., as are or may be required for the present and future wants of the University. A very large expenditure is now being incurred by the University in the erection of new Schools. Additional lecture rooms also appear to be urgently needed; and in very near prospect is the necessity for further extensive and costly alterations and enlargements of, or in connexion with, the Bodleian Library and the present University Museum, not to mention other probable wants of the same kind. Large, however, as is the outlay which for a considerable time to come may thus be necessary, it does not appear to us to be of a kind for which provision ought now to be made under the Act, otherwise than by such relief of the present and such augmentation of the future revenues of the University as we are about to propose. Those revenues, when increased (as they may be expected to be) by considerably larger receipts from the profits of the Clarendon Press than have lately been brought into the University chest, and relieved from those charges which we think may be undertaken by the Colleges, will, in our judgment, be sufficient to keep down the interest on any capital sums which it may be found necessary to borrow for building and other improvements, and also to provide in the usual way for the gradual repayment of any debts incurred, as well as for the general expenses of the University.

There are several other purposes relating to the University which we urge as important, and for some of which definite provision ought to be made under the Act. These are: (1) The provision of pensions in proper cases for retired Professors. (2) Additional provision for the instruction and discipline of unattached Students. (3) The foundation and endowment of Scholarships or Exhibitions, tenable after a certain fixed period of residence in the University, for Students in any special branches of study (including subjects which do not fall within the ordinary University course, such, for example, as Medicine), which may be usefully promoted by such encouragement, under conditions properly adapted to make their enjoyment dependent upon the *bonâ fide* prosecution of such studies. (4) The encouragement of research by the employment of properly qualified persons, under the direction of some University authority, in doing some definite work or conducting some prescribed course of investigation in any branch of literature or science, or by offering prizes or rewards for any such work or investigation. (5) The appointment and remuneration from time to time by the University authorities of extraordinary Professors or occasional lectures in any subjects, either represented or not on the ordinary teaching staff of the University. (6) Provision for the expenses of any examinations or other educational work which the University may from time to time undertake to conduct or assist in Oxford, or (subject to the conditions of the sixteenth clause of the Act, sub-section 16) elsewhere. As to all these matters we think it impossible at present to speak otherwise than in general terms. For the first two of them we think some definite and sufficient provision ought to be made under the Act, but the amount of that provision, and the manner in which it should be made, must be reserved for future consideration.

Under what conditions a retiring Professor should be deemed entitled to a pension, what proportion of his

stipend should in any case be allowed, and what annual sum should be received upon an average of years for such allowances, are important questions to be considered. It is, we think, desirable that there should be funds at the command of the University (except when any College may propose to take upon itself this charge as to Professorships which may have been endowed or augmented by it) which will enable such pensions to be made without encroaching upon the income of any successor to a Chair, or rendering necessary the practical suspension of the Chair, and the discharge of its duty by a deputy. The rest of the purposes enumerated under this head are such as we think may be best provided for by leaving to the University a very general power to use any surplus funds, from time to time at its disposal, for their promotion in such manner as, in the exercise of a large discretion, it may deem expedient, rather than by any more fixed and definite arrangements. We shall, however, be very willing to entertain proposals, if made to us by any of the Colleges, to establish out of College funds Scholarships or Exhibitions for the promotion of any special branches of study. And it will be a satisfaction to us if any well-considered plan can be devised by which special assistance can be given either by the University or by any College to such meritorious students as may labour under special difficulties in the prosecution of their University studies by reason of poverty. The last and not the least important of the main purposes relative to the University for which, in our opinion, provision should be made under the Act, is the creation of a Common University Fund, to be administered under the supervision of the University, in addition to its general corporate revenues. We look to the creation of this fund—of which the formation must be gradual—as the proper resource for the supply of all the wants enumerated under the preceding head, except such of them as any College may propose to aid in supplying, and also as an auxiliary fund for the erection, enlargement, and main-

tenance of such buildings as may from time to time be necessary for University purposes, with all proper furniture and apparatus, and for the maintenance in full efficiency of the University libraries and museums, &c. This fund should, in our opinion, be kept distinct from the other revenues of the University, and its proper administration should be provided for by special regulations.

We are thus brought to the second question to which the Legislature has required our statement to be directed.

II. As to the sources from which funds for the above purposes should be obtained, we are of opinion that these funds must necessarily be obtained from the Colleges. As a first step towards the creation of a Common University Fund we should propose that the Colleges should take upon themselves, as soon as practicable, by such arrangements as to the Professorate as are mentioned under the succeeding head, the charge of that portion of the present stipends of the existing University Professors which has been hitherto defrayed out of the University chest. The other particular charges for which, we think, provision ought, in the first instance, to be made, are the augmentation of the numbers and emoluments of University Professors and Readers, the proposed subsidy to the Bodleian Library, and the future annual charge of the Archæological Museum. The future increase of the Common University Fund must be left to be obtained from contributions out of such surplus revenues of the Colleges as may be free and disposable after all their own proper wants and those particular wants of the University have been satisfied.

III. As to the principles on which payments by the Colleges for the above-mentioned purposes should be contributed, the Colleges at Oxford differ very much in their present financial position and future prospects. Some of them have small or very moderate endowments, the resources of others are far more considerable, and in the case of several there is ground for anticipating a progressive increase of revenue which,

although gradual in its accretion, will be ultimately large. Some, again, have accommodation for and receive few. In this latter respect no fluctuations are liable to occur: there are differences which may be regarded as more or less permanent.

We are directed by the Act, before imposing any charge for University purposes upon the revenues of any College, to have regard, in the first place, to the wants of the College itself for educational and other collegiate purposes, and it is not, in our opinion, possible, consistently with this requirement, to obtain the whole or the greater part of the funds which will be wanted for the University purposes above mentioned, by any principle or scheme of contributions which shall be equal in its incidence on all the Colleges. It will be necessary to take into account the revenues, actual and prospective, of each College, and its actual and prospective wants for educational and other purposes, before we can form a judgment as to the amount which it should be called upon to contribute. In every College which has Fellowships some have hitherto commonly been held by Tutors and Lecturers, and have thus assisted directly or indirectly to maintain the educational stamp. Even though not specifically appropriated to it, we think that a reasonable part of the revenues of each College should continue to be available for that purpose. We think it expedient also to retain in Oxford a considerable number of Prize Fellowships—that is, Fellowships not coupled with any specific duty or service to a College or to the University (for the encouragement and reward of meritorious students). Such Fellowships should, we think, as a rule be terminable, and our present impression is that the emolument should be of uniform amount, and should not exceed 200*l.* per annum. Having to apportion charges altogether of large amount (though only capable of being provided for gradually as funds for that purpose are set free from existing interests and other prior engagements) among the several Colleges, the mode of doing so which in principle appears to us to be th

best and most practicable, is the following:—We think it in the first place not unreasonable (as the students in all the Colleges might, under proper arrangements, derive material benefit from the teaching of University Readers), that some moderate Contribution, either in the shape of a small ad valorem charge on their respective ordinary revenues, or otherwise, should be made in aid of the stipends of that class of University teachers by all the Colleges. If this contribution were fixed at the rate of eleven and a half per cent. on the amount of the ordinary revenues of all the Colleges, estimated on some uniform principle, we do not doubt that it would produce a sum which we should regard as sufficient for the purpose. We do not, however, intend to exclude the consideration of any special arrangements as to Readerships which any of the Colleges may propose. The charges for the Professorate of the Bodleian Library and for the Archæological Museum, ought, in our opinion, to be fairly apportioned among those Colleges which, having regard to their present and prospective means and to their ability to suffer reduction in the number or value of their Fellowships, and other circumstances, may be best capable of bearing them with respect to the professorate.

We should be glad to see this done, as far as possible, by the eventual appropriation and annexation of fellowships of adequate value to most of the Professorships. We do not think it proper upon this occasion to enter into special considerations affecting any College. When all the objects (as well as the proper wants of each College and the liquidation of College debts by suitable instalments) have been sufficiently met, such of the Colleges as may from time to time have a further disposable surplus revenue, ought, in our opinion, to contribute, and pay over a portion, to be hereafter fixed, of that disposable surplus, to the Common University Fund. It is necessary in conclusion, to repeat that the realisation of the resources on which we rely can only be gradual. The changes which we contemplate in the constitution and

emoluments of the existing Professorate will also, in the natural course of things, be gradual as vacancies happen, and it might not be found expedient, even if it were possible, at once to increase the staff of University teachers to the full extent now proposed. The supply, therefore, of those University wants which we had in view must be distributed over a considerable period of time; but we hope that within a very few years the more urgent of them may be supplied. We have already received from some of the Colleges proposals made in a liberal spirit, in harmony with the views which we have expressed, and we are confident that we shall receive such assistance from the University and the Colleges generally as may be necessary to enable us to determine when, and in what order of priority, provision shall be made for all the purposes specified in the first part of this statement.—April 25, 1878.—Given under our Common Seal this 25th day of April, in the year of our Lord, 1878.

APPENDIX II.

AUTHORS AND EDITIONS.

N.B.—The books are arranged thus :—1. Texts. 2. Commentaries. 3. Translations. 4. General Aids. The Texts required in the Schools are in *italics*.

Æschines. 1, 2. In Ctesiphontem, Oxford Pocket Classics, 2*s*. (cf. Demosthenes).

Æschylus. 1. *Dindorf*, 1*s*. 3*d*., or in P. S. G.*
2. Paley, 18*s*.
3. Paley (Prose), 7*s*. 6*d*.; A. Swanwick, 2 vols. 12*s*. (verse).
4. Introduction to Æschylus, in A. C.† Copleston, 2*s*. 6*d*.

Aristophanes. 1. *Dindorf*, P. S. G.; Bergk, 3*s*.
2. Pax, Acharnenses, Paley, 4*s*. 6*d*. each; Equites, 4*s*.; Nubes, Vespæ, 3*s*. 6*d*. each, Green, C. C.‡
3. J. H. Frere.

Aristotle. 1. *Bekker*, 11 vols. 2*l*. 10*s*.; Tauchnitz Series, 17*s*. 6*d*.
2. Ethics, Sir A. Grant, 32*s*.; Bks. 1–4, Moore, 10*s*. 6*d*.
Politics, Congreve, 18*s*.; Lang and Bolland; O. P. C.
Poetics, O. P. C.
Rhetoric, Cope.

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* "Poetæ Scenici Græci." Dindorf. 21*s*.
† "Ancient Classics for English Readers."
‡ "Catena Classicorum."

Organon, Selections, Magrath, 3*s.* 6*d.*; Trendelenburg, 2*s.* 6*d.*
De Anima, Trendelenburg.
3. Ethics, Chase, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Williams, 7*s.* 6*d.*
Politics; Walford, 5*s.*
4. Grote's Aristotle, 2 vols. 32*s.*

Cæsar. 1, 2. Bellum Gallicum, Moberly, 4*s.* 6*d.*
Bellum Civile, Moberly, 3*s.* 6*d.*

Catullus. 1. *Ellis*, 16*s.*; Carmina Selecta; Ellis, 3*s.* 6*d.*
2. Ellis, 16*s.*
3. Ellis.
4. Elucidations, H. A. J. Munro.

Cicero. 1. *Baiter and Kayser*, 22*s.*; Epistles, *Watson*, 4*s.*
2. Philippics, King, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Second Phil. Mayor, 5*s.*
Pro Cluentio, Ramsay, 3*s.* 6*d.*
In Catilinam, Wilkins, 3*s.* 6*d.*
Pro Murena, Halm, 1*s.* (German).
Pro Sestio, Halm, 1*s.* (Do.).
De Officiis, Holden, 7*s.* 6*d.*
De Finibus, Madvig, 26*s.*
Tusc. Disput., T. K. Arnold, 5*s.* 6*d.*
De Oratore, Piderit, 4*s.* 6*d.* (German).
Select Epistles, Watson, 18*s.*
3. Bohn's Series, 8 vols. 38*s.* 6*d.*
4. Forsyth's Life, 10*s.* 6*d*; Merivale's Abeken.

Demosthenes. 1. *Baiter*, O. A.,* Bekker, 4*s.* 6*d.*
2. De Cor., Holmes, 5*s.*; Simcox (et Æsc. in Ct.) 12*s.*
De Fals. Leg., Shilleto, 6*s.*
Olyn. and Phil., Heslop, 4*s.* 6*d.*
3. Kennedy, 5 vols. 23*s.* 6*d.*

Euripides. 1. *Dindorf*, P. S. G., Witzschel, 3*s.* 6*d.*
2. Paley, 3 vols. 48*s.*

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* "Oratores Attici." Baiter and Sauppe. 21*s.*

Hecuba, Medea, Alcestis, Bacchæ, 1*s.* each, O. P. C.

Herodotus. 1. *Bähr;* Dietsch., 2*s.* 6*d.*
2. Bähr, 4 vols. 32*s.*; Turner, 5*s.*
3. Rawlinson (with notes), 4 vols. 48*s.*
4. Analysis, Wheeler, 5*s.*

Homer. 1. Iliad and Odyssey, *Dindorf*, 1*s.* 8*d.* each.
2. Iliad, Paley, 2 vols. 26*s.*; 1–12 (small), 6*s.* 6*d.*
Odyssey, 1–12, Hayman, 2 vols. 28*s.*
„ 1–12, Merry and Riddell, 16*s.*
„ 1–12 (small), Merry, 4*s.* 6*d.*
3. Lord Derby, 10*s.*; Pope.
4. Gladstone, Juventus Mundi, 10*s.* 6*d.*

Horace. 1. *Orelli*, L. Müller, 10*d.*
2. Orelli, 21*s.*; editio minor, 7*s.*
Wickham, Vol. I. 12*s.*; Macleane, 18*s.*; Currie, 5*s.*
3. Martin (Odes and Satires), 9*s.*; Conington, 2 vols. 12*s.*

Isocrates. 1. O. A.
2. Demonicus, Panegyricus, Sandys, 4*s.* 6*d.*

Juvenal. 1. *Mayor;* Jahn, 1*s.* 6*d.*
2. Mayor (1st edition out of print), Vol. I. 7*s.* 6*d.*; Simcox, 5*s.*; (et Persius), Macleane, 12*s.*
3. Gifford (verse), 5*s.*

Livy. 1. *Madvig*, 26*s.*; Weissenborn, 6*s.*
2. Bk. I., Seeley, 6*s.*

Lucretius. 1. *Munro*, 2*s.* 6*d.*
2. Munro, 16*s.*
3. Munro, 6*s.*

Lysias. 1. O. A.; Scheibe, 1*s.* 3*d.*

Martial. 1, 2. Selections, Paley and Stone, 6*s.* 6*d.*

Persius. 1, 2, 3. *Conington*, 7*s.* 6*d.*
1. Hermann, 5*d.*
2. Pretor, 3*s.* 6*d.*

Pindar. 1. *Dissen*, 4*s.*
2. Olym. and Pyth., Dissen, 3*s.*
3. Paley, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Myers, 5*s.*

Plato. 1. *Baiter and Orelli*, 20*s.*
2. Theætetus, Campbell, 9*s.*
Sophist and Politicus, Campbell, 18*s.*
Apology, Riddell, 8*s.* 6*d.*; Wagner, 4*s.* 6*d.*
Phædo, Wagner, 5*s.* 6d.
3. Jowett, 5 vols. 3*l.* 10*s.*
Republic, Davies and Vaughan, 4s. 6*d.*
4 Grote's Plato, 3 vols. 45*s.*
Plato and the Older Academy, Zeller, 18*s.*

Plautus. 1. Mostell. Menæch. *Ritschl*, 1*s.* each; Amphit. Capt. Miles. Rudens. Trinum. *Fleckeisen*, Vol. I. 1*s.* 3*d.*
2. Aulularia, Wagner, 4*s.* 6*d.*
Mostellaria, Ramsay, 14*s.*
Trinummus, Wagner, 4*s.* 6*d.*

Pliny the Younger. 1. Keil, 1*s.* 3*d.*
2. Select Letters, Church and Brodribb, 6*s.*; Prichard and Bernard, 3*s.*
3. Melmoth.

Plutarch. 1. *Sintenis*, 7*s.*
3. Clough, 6*s.*

Polybius. 1. *Schweighaeuser;* L. Dindorf, 12*s.*

Propertius. 1. Haupt, Keil, 9*d.*
2. Paley, 9*s.*

Quintilian. 1. *Bonnell*, 2*s.*
2. Mayor (Bk. X).

Sallust. 1. *Dietsch*, 5*d.*
2. Long, 5*s.*; Merivale, 4*s.* 6*d.*

Sophocles. 1. *Campbell*, 4*s.* 6*d.*; Dindorf, 1*s.* 3*d.* or P. S. G.
2. Campbell, Vol. I. 14*s.*
Campbell and Abbott, Œd. Tyr. and Col. Antig. Ajax, 1*s.* 9*d.*, 2*s.*
Jebb, Ajax, Electra, 3*s.* 6*d.* each.
Pretor, Trachiniæ, 4*s.* 6*d.*
3. Plumptre (verse), 7*s.* 6*d.*
4. Thirlwall on Irony of Sophocles in Vol. III. of Works.

Tacitus. 1. *Halm*, 2*s*.
2. Annals, Frost, 15*s*.; O. P. C., 7*s*.; Orelli (Latin), 12*s*.
Agric. and Germ., Church and Brodribb, 3*s*. 6*d*.
Annals, Bk. I., Smith, 5*s*.
3. Annals, Church and Brodribb, 7*s*. 6*d*.
Histories, Church and Brodribb, 6*s*.
Agric. and Germ., Church and Brodribb, 2*s*. 6*d*.

Terence. 1. *Wagner*, 3*s*.
2. Wagner, 10*s*. 6*d*.; Parry, 18*s*.

Theocritus. 1. *Fritzsche*, 2*s*. 9*d*.
2. Snow, 4*s*. 6*d*.; Paley (Latin), 4*s*. 6*d*.
3. Calverley (verse), 7*s*. 6*d*.

Thucydides. 1. *Bekker*, 3*s*.
2. Poppo (edit. min.), 12*s*.; Arnold, 36*s*.; Krüger (German), 14*s*.
Books I., II., III., Sheppard and Evans, 10*s*. 6*d*.
Book I., Shilleto, 6*s*. 6*d*.
Books VI., VII., Frost, 5*s*.
3. Dale, 7*s*.; Crawley, 10*s*. 6*d*.
Speeches from Thucydides, Wilkins, 6*s*.
4. Analysis, Wheeler, 5*s*.

Virgil. 1. *Conington*, 3*s*. 6*d*.
2. Conington, 3 vols. 40*s*.; Forbiger, 17*s*.; Kennedy, 10*s*. 6*d*.
Small Conington, 12*s*.; Bryce, 6*s*.
3. Conington (verse), Æneid, 9*s*.; Morris, Æneid, 14*s*.; Kennedy.
Dryden.
(Prose), Lonsdale and Lee, 3*s*. 6*d*.
4. Sellar's Roman Poets, Virgil, 14*s*.
Nettleship's Introduction to Æneid, 1*s*. 6*d*.

Xenophon. 1. *Dindorf*, 3*s*. 9*d*.

Corpus Poetarum Latinorum, Weber (out of print, but can usually be procured), Walker, 18*s*.

Grammars, &c.—Greek.

Jelf, 30*s.*; Curtius, 6*s.*; Parry, 4*s.* 6*d.*; Irregular Verbs, Veitch, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Goodwin's Greek Syntax, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Farrar, 4*s.* 6*d.*

Latin.

Madvig, 12*s.*; Roby, 2 vols. 19*s.*; Public School Grammar, 6*s.*

Composition.—Latin.

Sargent and Dallin, Materials and Models, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Wilkins' Manual, 5*s.* 6*d.*; Frost's Materials, 2*s.* 6*d.*; Wilkins' Exercises, 4*s.* 6*d.*; Holden, Foliorum Centuriæ, 8*s.*; Potts' Hints, 3*s.*; Abbott's Latin Prose through English Idiom, 2*s.* 6*d.*

Greek.

Sargent and Dallin, Materials, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Holden, Foliorum Centuriæ, 8*s.*; Wilkins' Manual, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Wilkins' Exercises, 4*s.* 6*d.*; Frost, Materials, 3*s.* 6*d.*

Latin Verse.

Gepp's Exercises, 3*s.* 6*d.*; Holden, Foliorum Silvulæ, Part I., 7*s.* 6*d.*; Part II., 5*s.*; Sabrinæ Corolla, 8*s.* 6*d.*; Arundines Cami, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Greek Verse.

Beatson's Iambics, 3*s.*; Holden, Foliorum Silvulæ, Part III., 8*s.*

Dictionaries.—Latin.

Smith, 21*s.*; White and Riddle, 28*s.*; small editions, 7*s.* 6*d.*; English-Latin, Smith, 21*s.*; small edition, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Greek.

Liddell and Scott, 36*s.*; small edition, 7*s.* 6*d.*; English-Greek, Yonge, 21*s.*; Fraedersdorff, 21*s.*; smaller edition, Yonge, 8*s.* 6*d.*

Philology.

Max Müller, Lectures, 16*s.*; Peile, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Papillon, 6*s.*; Bopp, Comparative Grammar.

Antiquities.—Roman.

Ramsay's Roman Antiquities, 8*s.*; smaller edition,

4*s.* 6*d.*; Wilkins' Primer, 1*s.*; Becker's Gallus, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Greek.

Becker's Charicles, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Mahaffy's Social Life, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Mahaffy, Primer of Greek Antiquities, 1*s.*; Boechk's Economy of Athens; Smith's Dictionary, 28*s.*; smaller Dictionary, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Rich's Dictionary, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Geography.

Smith's Classical Atlas, 6*l.* 6*s.*; Spruner, 28*s.*; Kiepert, 6*s.*; Smith's Dictionary, 2 vols., 56*s.*

Roman Literature.

Teuffel, 2 vols. 21*s.*; Cruttwell; Sellar, Poets of the Republic (out of print), Poets of Augustan Age, Virgil, 14*s.*

Greek Literature.

Mure, 5 vols. 3*l.* 9*s.*; Müller, 3 vols. 21*s.*; Jebb, Primer, 1*s.*; Symond's Greek Poets, 10*s.* 6*d.*

Ancient History, Greek.

Grote, 12 vols. 60*s.*; Curtius, 5 vols.; Cox, General History, 7*s.* 6*d.*; small ed., 3*s.* 6*d.*; Student's Greece, 7*s.* 6*d.*; small edn., 3*s.* 6*d.*; Cox, Greeks and Persians, Athenian Empire, 2*s.* 6*d.* each.

Roman.

Mommsen, 4 vols. 47*s.* 6*d.*; Ihne, 3 vols. 45*s.*; Merivale, Romans under the Empire, 48*s.*; Fall of Republic, 7*s.* 6*d.*; General History, 7*s.* 6*d.*; small edn., 3*s.* 6*d.*; Three Triumvirates, 2*s.* 6*d.*; Student's Rome, 7*s.* 6*d.*; small edn., 3*s.* 6*d.*; A. H. Beesly, Gracchi, Marius, and Sulla, 2*s.* 6*d.*; E. S. Beesly, Catiline, Tiberius, &c.; Capes' Early Empire, 2*s.* 6d.; Gibbon (Smith), 8 vols. 60*s.*; Bohn's edn., 7 vols. 24*s.* 6*d.*

Greek and Roman History.

Historical Essays, Second Series, E. A. Freeman, 10*s.* 6*d.*

Political Philosophy.

Maine, Ancient Law, 12*s.*; Village Communities, 12*s.*; Early Institutions, 12*s.*; Mill, Liberty, 7*s.* 6*d.* or 1*s.* 4*d.*; Representative Government, 2*s.*; G. C. Lewis, Use and Abuse of Political Terms, 6*s.*

Fawcett's Political Economy, 12*s.*; Mrs. Fawcett, 2*s.* 6*d.*; Cairnes, Leading Principles, 14*s.*; J. S. Mill, 5*s.*; Jevons' Primer, 1*s.*

Moral Philosophy.

Mill, Utilitarianism, 5*s.*; Sidgwick, Methods of Ethics, 14*s.*; Lecky, European Morals, 2 vols. 16*s.*; J. Grote's Examination of Utilitarianism; Calderwood, Handbook, 6*s.*; Bentham, Principles of Morals and Legislation, 6*s.* 6*d.*; Butler's Sermons, 5*s.*; Jouffroy's Lectures, 2 vols.

Philosophy and Logic.

Mill, Logic, 2 vols. 25*s.*; Bain, Logic, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Mental (and Moral) Science, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Mansel's Aldrich, Prolegomena Logica; Fowler's Inductive Logic, 6*s.*; Deductive Logic, 3*s.* 6*d.*; Jevons' Logic, 3*s.* 6*d.*; Mill on Hamilton, 16*s.*

Ueberweg's History of Philosophy, 2 vols. 39*s.*; Lewes, 2 vols. 32*s.*; Schwegler, 6*s.*; Cousin; Ferrier, Early Greek Philosophy, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Ritter and Preller, 9*s.*; Zeller's Stoics and Epicureans, 14*s.*; Socrates, 8*s.*; Plato, 18*s.*; Ribot, English Psychology, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Leslie Stephen, History of Thought in Eighteenth Century, 2 vols. 24*s.*

Bacon, Novum Organum, Fowler, 14*s.*; Fischer's Bacon.

Hegel, Wallace, Logic of Hegel, 14*s.*

Kant, Henderson, 7*s.* 6*d.*; Mahaffy, Vol. I., III., 21*s.*; Caird, 18*s.*

Berkeley, Fraser, 4 vols. 58*s.*; Selections, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Comte, Miss Martineau, 2 vols. 25*s.*; Mill, Comte and Positivism, 6*s.*

Hume, Human Nature, 2 vols. 28*s.*; Essays, 2 vols. 28*s.* (Green and Grose); Essays, 4*s.* 6*d.*

Spencer, First Principles, 16*s.*

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